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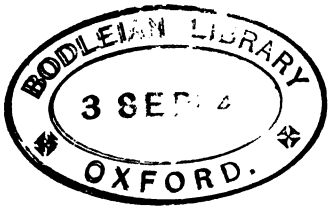

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LA BELLE SAUVAGE YARD,
1884.

A List of leading dates will be found at the close of the Work.

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THE SIMPLE OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

LESSON I.

WHAT ENGLISH HISTORY IS.

1. The reason why we like to read English history, is because it tells the story of our own ancestors. You all know of your fathers and your grandfathers, and you must remember that each of them had grandfathers and great-grandfathers before him, and so on backwards as far as we can go; so that forefathers of every English child who reads this little book must have been living at every time in the history of the English people.

2. English history, therefore, is the history of our own families as well as that of our nation. It is as if a great ladder stretched up to those far distant days, fifteen centuries ago, when we first get to know something of our people; and on every step or rung of the ladder there is an ancestor of ours standing. We shall go up to the top of the ladder, and as we come

down we shall notice the principal changes which have taken place from age to age, till England and its inhabitants have come to be what they are to-day.

3. Let us consider for a moment what our country is at present. In the group of islands called the British Isles there are dwelling over thirty-five millions of people. But these form only a part of the number of Englishmen in the world. On the opposite side of the Atlantic there is the great continent of North America, containing another fifty millions of people, whose forefathers were mostly Englishmen. There are other great nations of Englishmen growing up in other parts—in the great island of Australia, in New Zealand, and in South Africa. And there is the vast peninsula of India, containing old and populous cities, and many states which were once powerful kingdoms; and they are all controlled, protected, educated, and kept in peace and order by Englishmen.

4. England itself is inhabited and cultivated in almost every part; for our people have grown so numerous that it has become impossible to produce food enough to feed all of them, and so it has become necessary for England to buy cattle and corn, and other natural products of the earth, from many countries which have more land and fewer inhabitants, while we give them in exchange the various useful and ornamental articles which are manufactured by the skill and labour of our people. Thus it comes about that England, which was once a land of savages, is now, as it were, the great shop or market of the world. In every harbour of the world are English ships carrying

the implements of iron and steel, the woollen goods, the cottons, and the silks, which have been made in the workshops, the looms, and the mills or factories of our northern and midland counties. Of all the merchant ships afloat upon the seas, nearly half sail under the English flag; and the produce of many countries is sent to England to be distributed to all parts of the globe.

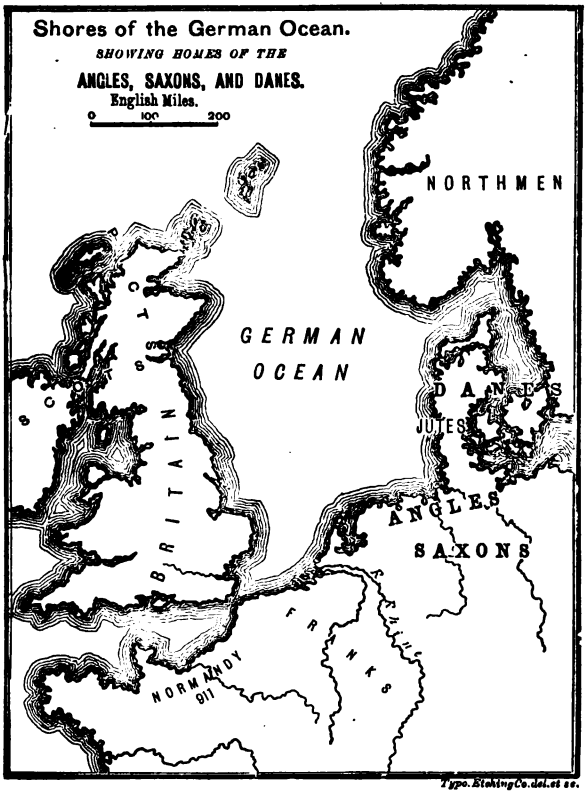
5. When we go back to the beginning of our history we see how great is the difference between the condition of England and Englishmen in past times and in our own. This country was not then called England, but Britain; for the English did not then inhabit it. Our English forefathers consisted of a few tribes of barbarians living in northern Germany; whilst these islands were then covered with forests, and occupied by naked savages called Britons. There has been a long series of changes constantly going on which have altered the face of the country, the mode of life, the habits, and the thoughts of our people, and their way of managing their public and private affairs.

LESSON II.

THE ENGLISH.

1. Fifteen centuries ago the English people lived far off across the German Ocean in the flat lands through which the river Elbe runs to the sea. There, in the clearings of the great and gloomy forest, or

among the meadows and marsh-lands nearer the coast, dwelt three tribes closely related to one another,



and all branches of the great German people who occupied then, as they do now, the middle part of

Europe. These three tribes were known by the separate names of the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles or English. The English were the most important and perhaps the most numerous of the dwellers on the coast, and so the various tribes afterwards came to be known to strangers and themselves chiefly by that name.

2. The English were a people of farmers and husbandmen. They dwelt in small villages or hamlets, each surrounded and cut off from the other by a ring of forest and waste ground. Each village formed a little state or commonwealth by itself. They had no kings, but every tribe had its chief or ruler, elected by the men of the villages from one of the principal families; and a council of the grown men in all the villages met from time to time to make laws. Thus in each settlement of these ancestors of ours there was a little Parliament, just as we have our great Parliament at Westminster to discuss the matters which concern all Englishmen.

3. The English were not Christians, but they had some sort of religion. They believed in their gods—Woden, the great god who ruled over all things, Thor, the god who sent the thunder from heaven, and others. We still keep a memorial of this old faith in our names for the days of the week; thus Wednesday is Woden's-day, and Thursday Thor's-day. Their religion did not forbid the English to be cruel and bloodthirsty and merciless to their enemies; but it taught them some good things. They were for the most part honest and upright in their dealings with one another. They

loved bravery and manliness before all things, and hated all deceit and cowardice. They believed that after their death the gods would reward those who had lived as true and valiant men. Freedom they prized greatly, and would die sooner than forfeit it. They treated their wives well, and held them in much honour and respect.

4. They were great hunters, chasing the wild boar, the wolf, and the buffalo through the forests, and enduring hardship and fatigue patiently. They were also fierce warriors, constantly fighting with the neighbouring tribes. When the toils and perils of war and hunting were over, it was their delight to meet together in their rough log cabins, to drink huge bowls of a sort of beer, and to listen to the words of a singer who told them the mighty deeds that had been done by gods and heroes in days gone by.

5. They were hardy and daring fishermen and sailors. They pushed out to sea in their long, narrow boats, rowed sometimes by fifty oarsmen, and explored the coasts of all the neighbouring lands. They were not afraid of storms, and became wonderfully skilful in the management of their vessels. But they did not use their ships for carrying merchandise. They preferred fighting to trading, and their fleets were employed in plundering the coasts of whatever country they could reach. In this way, by the end of the fourth century after Christ, they had become a terror to all the nations that lived round the shores of the North Sea and the English Channel. Running their boats up on the beach, they would leap out, with their mighty

axes and broad-bladed spears in their hands, slaughter all who resisted them, and carry away captives and plunder to their home in Germany. And the merchant-

APPROACH OF THE SAXON SHIPS.

men who traded in those seas had to creep cautiously from port to port, and to keep a sharp look-out, lest they should be met and captured by these terrible rovers.

LESSON III.

THE BRITONS AND THE ROMANS.

1. Among the countries whose shores were plundered by the English was that which has since been called England, but was then known as Britain, or Britannia; and the land was inhabited by a people called the Britons.

2. The Britons had fallen under the rule of a great people called the Romans. The Romans came from Rome, in Italy; but they had gradually extended their power until their empire included all the countries which lie around the Mediterranean Sea and between it and the Atlantic. Wherever they came, they taught the people their own laws and language, and caused them to give up many of their national habits and customs, so that they might become Romans. To this day the nations of Southern and Western Europe, from the mouths of the Danube to the Straits of Dover, speak a language which is derived from the Roman, or Latin, tongue, and are in great part governed by laws which are founded upon those of the Romans.

3. These conquering Romans were stern rulers, and would allow no rebellion or revolt against their authority; but, for the most part, they were just rulers too, and where they came they established peace and order and obedience to the law, so that men might be sure of living peaceably and prosperously. They were as good soldiers as they were lawgivers and governors,

and their dominions were covered with great camps filled with trained and practised troops, always ready to put down rebellion, or to keep foreign enemies away from the land. They had a strong fleet cruising about on the coasts, and an officer whose special business it was to keep off the attacks of the English and the Saxons.

4. They were wonderful engineers and builders, too, and made great stone aqueducts to bring fresh water from the hills to the towns, and wide roads which went straight over hill and dale from end to end of a country, so that the armies might march quickly, and merchants and traders with their pack-mules go easily from place to place. From time to time people still dig up from the ground the ruins of the Roman villas, with beautiful marbles, and carved stone-work and pictures, and find the remains of their fortresses and towers, built as solidly and strongly as though they were meant to last for ever. In their later days they became Christians, and the countries which were subject to them gave up their old heathen worship, and there sprang up churches and schools and houses full of monks and religious men.

5. Britain was so far away, and the land was so wild and rugged, that the Romans never succeeded in making the people become like themselves in speech and manners. The Britons continued to live chiefly under the rule of their native chiefs, and they kept their own language and many of their old customs and usages. The Romans in Britain were few in number. They dwelt in the sea-ports and in a few inland trading towns and military stations, from which they carried on the government of the country in the same way as a few

thousands of our countrymen are carrying on the government of India now.

6. And this Roman government only extended over the southern part of the island of Great Britain—that part of it which we now call England and Wales. The northern part, which we know as Scotland, they did not manage to subdue. It was inhabited by a people called Picts, who were akin to the Britons, but wilder and more warlike. The Romans built two great walls across the island to keep them out, but they were constantly making inroads, with the help of the Scots, who then dwelt in Ireland.

7. These attacks became worse when the Romans found it necessary to take some of their soldiers away from the island to defend other parts of their dominions. While the Saxons were attacking and plundering the coasts of the Roman Empire by sea, many other German tribes were making inroads upon its territories by land, and were threatening not merely remote provinces but Italy itself. So that at last, in the year 409, about 450 years after their first coming, the Romans had to withdraw altogether from their distant possessions in Britain, and to leave its inhabitants to defend themselves.

8. But this the Britons found themselves unable to do. The Romans had taught them many things, but they had not taught them how to govern themselves, and to manage their own affairs; and people who cannot do this are very seldom able to fight for themselves. Thus the attacks of the Picts and Scots proved too strong for the Britons. The northern barbarians carried

LANDING OF HENGIST AND HORSA, 443 A.D.

havoc and desolation over the country, which had become peaceful and prosperous under the Romans, and were rapidly overrunning and conquering the whole land. The Britons, in despair, sought the assistance of the German pirates who were making raids upon the coast. It is said that Vortigern, a British chief in the district which is now called Kent, was the first to try this expedient. In 443 A.D., a band of the Jutes, who were cruising in the North Sea, under two leaders named Hengist and Horsa, landed in the Isle of Thanet, not far from the modern town of Ramsgate. With this event the history of the English people in England begins.

LESSON IV.

THE SETTLEMENT OF THE ENGLISH.

1. The Jutes easily drove back the Picts; but when they had done that, they were not inclined to go away from the fair land on which they had set foot. They turned against the Britons, and gradually fought their way up the country, across the rivers Stour and Medway, till they got nearly to the Thames and the line of hills which stretch southward towards the South Downs. The Britons who had dwelt in those regions were called the Kantings, and the English borrowed the name and called the first of their kingdoms in Britain Kent, and its capital Canterbury, or the borough of the Kent men.

2. The news of these events brought others of the English and the Saxons to these shores. Tribe after tribe came over the sea, till many of the Jutes and the Saxons, and almost the whole of the Angles, had left their native land and had come to Britain. They came not as people who want only to conquer a country, but as those do who mean to settle there. In the long black boats which took them over the sea were crowded, not only the chiefs and the fighting men of the tribe, but the women and children, their furniture and farming tools, even their dogs and cattle. In fact, they took with them everything of value, as though they never meant to return.

3. The various branches of the nation came separately, landing in different parts of Britain, and fighting their way inland till they had driven the Britons (or, as they called them, the Welsh, which means foreigners) into the thick forests which covered the whole interior of the island, except where the Romans had made clearings for roads and settlements. It took the invaders only a few years to drive the Welsh from the coast; but it was a much longer task for them to get possession of the inland districts. For the natives took shelter in the forests; besides, they fought very bravely against their enemies from Germany.

4. But the Britons were no match for the English, and in the end they were slaughtered or driven away into the mountainous regions of the west. It was nearly two hundred years before the English could be said to be masters of the greater part of southern Britain, and many centuries more before they

established their authority over the Welsh, who took refuge in the hill-country of Cornwall, Wales, and Cumberland.

5. The English and the Saxons did not at first mingle with the Britons. For, as we have said, they were cruel and bloodthirsty in their fighting; and when they won a battle they slew all their enemies who fell into their hands, except a few whom they kept to be their slaves. They burnt the beautiful towns which the Romans had built, and left nothing but heaps of smoking ruins to tell of the villas and mansions, and the law courts and churches which had once been there. The Roman language was quite lost; for even the Britons soon forgot it and went back to their own tongue. Thus the English lived on in Britain in very much the same way as they had lived of old in Germany.

6. They continued to be a people of farmers and tillers of the soil, and they disliked a town life. For the most part, each little tribe or group of families, when it came over from the old country, formed a small village settlement by itself. The village or township, as it was called, had its "meeting," or small parliament, which assembled round some tree or hillock on the village-green, to make its laws and manage its affairs, and appoint the persons who were to be judges and chief officers in the place.

7. A number of townships made up the division of country called a "hundred," and the hundreds were combined to form the still larger districts called "shires," or counties. There were larger parliaments

for the hundred and the shire, to which two or four men were sent by the people of each township, to see that its affairs were not being neglected, and to say what they thought on anything that was being done.

8. When these men met in the shire meeting, they decided lawsuits, and if a person was accused of a crime they considered whether he was guilty or not. There were two ways in which an accused person might prove that he was innocent. If he could get twelve of his relations and neighbours to swear that they knew he had not committed the crime, he was allowed to go free. The other way was by what was called the *ordeal*. The accused man was required to do some very difficult or dangerous thing, such as holding red-hot iron in his hand, or he was thrown into a pond with his arms and legs tied. If he got out of the danger unhurt, he was thought to be innocent; but if he was harmed, he was held to be guilty.

AN ENGLISH PEASANT.

9. Every Englishman was expected to fight in the army when necessary, for there were no regular soldiers in those days. When the king called upon the people

to help against foemen, every man in each hundred and township who could bear arms took his buckler and sword from the wall of his cottage and hastened to the meeting-place where the men of the shire assembled. Then an officer appointed by the king to rule the shire took command of the army of his shire and led them forth to battle.

10. Except a few Welsh captives, whom they had made prisoners and kept as slaves, there were none but freemen among the English. But if a man did not have any land of his own, he was not allowed many of the rights and privileges which came to those who had. He was under the protection of his landlord, and obliged to do certain services for him.

11. The English and Saxons had no king when they were in Germany. But when they came to Britain, they began to feel the want of kings who would not only act as their generals against the Britons, but manage their transactions with each other and with the British chieftains. Very often the chief who led the tribe over from the old country became its king in the new. Hengist, the Jute leader, became king of Kent; and Cerdic, the leader of a band of Saxons who landed in Hampshire, was proclaimed the king of the West Saxons.

12. When the king died, the member of his family who seemed the fittest was chosen to succeed him on the throne. The king was looked up to and treated with great respect; but he was not allowed to break the laws or to behave tyrannically. If he did, he might be deposed, and a new king chosen. This was done by an assembly of the chief men of the nation—called the

Witan, or Wise Men—who met from time to time to help the king to make new laws, and to advise him on affairs of importance.

LESSON V.

THE ENGLISH BECOME CHRISTIANS.

1. It was a long time before the English in England learnt to feel that they were one people. They came over in separate tribes, under different leaders; and each tribe formed a little kingdom by itself, which was often at war with its neighbours. At last most of these small states were conquered by the larger ones, so that there were only six or seven principal kingdoms left.

2. It is worth while remembering the names of these old English kingdoms, and looking at their positions on the map. The most northern of them was Northumbria (at first divided into two smaller kingdoms of Deira and Beornicia), which lay along the shores of the German Ocean, between the Frith of Forth and the river Humber. The flat lands of our eastern counties, going southward to the Thames, made up the country of the East Angles. South of this was Kent, and beyond Kent the country of the South Saxons, which we now call Sussex. Our south-western counties between Surrey and Cornwall formed the kingdom of the West Saxons or Wessex. The middle part of England was called Mercia, or the kingdom of the

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March, or borderland, because it bordered on the Welsh tribes of the hill country. There were frequent wars between these kingdoms. Sometimes one was victorious and sometimes another.

3. The English had been heathen on their coming to Britain, and their rage had been fierce against the Christian priests and churches when they first met with them. But now all the other German nations who had conquered the dominions of the Romans had become Christians. The Pope, or Bishop of Rome, was looked up to as the head and father of all Christians. And in 597 A.D. a Pope called Gregory sent missionaries under a priest named Augustine to try to convert the English to the Christian faith. They landed in Kent, where the King Ethelbert had married a Christian wife from over the sea, and before long the Kentishmen became Christians. A bishop was established at Canterbury, and the chief, or archbishop, of the English Church, still takes his title from that place.

4. From Kent the Christian priests went forth to the other kingdoms, and, moreover, missionaries and preachers from Ireland and the western isles of Scotland, where Christianity had lasted from the times of the Romans, came over to the northern parts of the country. And so at length all the English became Christians, and the old heathen worship vanished from the land. This took many years, for the English were fond of their old customs, and would not lightly leave the faith which their fathers had taught them. But when they had thought the matter over and had seen how much better the new religion was, with its promise

of a life to come, even the priests of the Pagan worship abandoned it and became members of the Christian Church.

5. Christianity made the English less fierce and barbarous in their wars, and less cruel to the enemies they conquered. They became a kinder and a gentler people, and more civilised in many ways. The Christian priests taught them that it was well for men to do good deeds to others, and to give up things that pleased themselves in order to make other people happier and better. Many men who were called monks lived together in great houses or monasteries, and gave themselves up to praying, and working, and teaching the people. They denied themselves the pleasures and comforts that other men had, and they tried only to make their lives blameless and useful to mankind. And so the English got to know that there were other virtues besides those of strength and courage, which were the only ones they had much valued before.

6. The monks tilled the waste places of the country, and built churches and schools for the people. They were never idle, and much of their time was spent in adorning their churches with paintings and beautiful ornaments of metal and carved wood. The English got to know something of what was written in books, and even to write them themselves. In the monasteries some of the monks began to write a great book, which we may still read, that told the Chronicle of the Angles and the Saxons. And Bede laboured, as you have read, in his monastery at Jarrow, to translate the Gospel of St. John for the English people.

7. And besides this, the Christian Church taught the different tribes and kingdoms of the English to look on themselves as one people. For in the seventh century all England was divided into bishoprics, and meetings of the bishops and priests from the whole country were held from time to time to discuss the affairs of the Church throughout the land. In these meetings there was no distinction between one Englishman and another. All aimed at the common good of the whole land, and from them the people learnt to think of each other, not as foes, but as fellow-Englishmen.

8. But there were long struggles between the kingdoms before they were united under a single rule. First one kingdom and then another got the upper hand. At one time Northumbria became the leading state; and then for a time Mercia was very powerful, and had some sort of rule over the other states. But afterwards Wessex became stronger than any of the others, and at last, in 800 A.D., nearly two centuries and a half after their first landing, a great king of the West Saxons, or Wessex, named Egbert, became overlord or chief ruler of all the English in Britain.

LESSON VI.

ENGLAND AND THE DANES.

1. One reason which led to the union of the English under the King of Wessex was that they were being attacked by enemies from abroad. This made it

more necessary for them to lay aside their quarrels and unite under one leader to fight these invaders, who were called the Danes, or Northmen.

2. The Northmen came from the countries on the eastern shore of the German Ocean, not very far from the lands from which the English themselves had come; and they were people something like what the English and the Saxons had been when first they began to ravage the shores of Britain. They were a hardy and valiant race, delighting in danger and difficult adventures. They were tall and strong, and such fierce warriors that very few armies could stand against them in battle when they uttered their war-shout and advanced to the charge, swinging their great battle-axes. They were Pagans, worshipping Woden and Thor, and very cruel and bloodthirsty to their enemies.

3. They were even bolder sailors than the English and Saxons had been, and they cared less for husbandry and for tilling the ground. They lived on the coasts, among the creeks and bays of Denmark and by the stormy shore of Norway, and they were almost as much at home on the sea as other people were on land. They became wonderfully bold pirates and sea-rovers—sea-kings, their poets called them—not to be daunted by tempests, and seeking far and wide in the countries that bordered on the sea the riches their own poor and barren land could not give them.

4. Wherever they came they carried terror. When their black ships, with brazen beaks, filled with armed men, were seen out at sea, the people fled in affright from the coast, carrying their goods with them.

But the Northmen rowed up the rivers right into the heart of the country, plundering as they went, setting fire to towns and churches, and robbing the monasteries

A LANDING OF THE DANES.

of all the valuable and beautiful things the monks had made. Often when they had filled their ships with plunder they went back over the sea to Norway, only to return another year and begin the work of plundering

afresh. But sometimes they settled in the places they came to, and made their home there. They showed themselves very well able to govern, and quick at learning from people who were more civilised than themselves. So that when they settled anywhere they ceased to be mere barbarians, and often became the leaders of the people amongst whom they dwelt.

5. There was hardly a country in Europe they did not visit, either as plunderers or settlers. One branch of them formed a great power in the country which is now called Russia. Others went to distant Iceland, and to the dreary shores of Greenland. Some sailed round the Bay of Biscay, into the Mediterranean, so that in later days we find the Northmen ruling in Africa and in Sicily. They came to the coasts of Ireland, and made many settlements in the islands to the north and west of Scotland. One body of them settled in the north of France, and there adopted the language of the country, and became superior to the French in learning and in many useful arts. They formed a little state called Normandy, or the land of the Northmen, which afterwards played a great part in the history of England.

6. It was the Northmen of Denmark, or Danes, who were most dangerous to England; and their attacks grew more determined as the country became richer and more peaceful. The English fought bravely against them, but could not keep them out, partly because they would not unite against the invaders. At last the Danes conquered a large part of the east side of the island, and settling there fought on to gain the rest.

7. Egbert and the kings who followed him were constantly fighting with them in long and terrible wars. Sometimes the English kings won victories, but they were not able to drive the Danes away from the districts they had conquered. At last, in the year 878, King Alfred, who was the grandson of Egbert, after being many times defeated, and at length winning a great victory over the Danes, made a peace with them at Wedmore, and allowed them to keep those parts which they had won, on condition that they did not invade or plunder the rest of the country.

8. A line was drawn across England from Chester to the Thames, near London. The Danes were to keep the district north-east of this line, which was called the Danish country, or the Danelagh, and were not to interfere with the parts south and west of the line, which were English. And the Danes agreed to acknowledge Alfred as the chief ruler of all England. Many Northmen settled in the country and mixed with the English of the eastern counties. But the peace did not last very long, and for the greater part of the next hundred and fifty years there was fighting from time to time between the English and the Danes.

LESSON VII.

THE UNION OF ENGLAND.

1. King Alfred, who reigned in England from 871 to 900 A.D., has been rightly called the Great, for he

was one of the best and wisest kings who ever ruled in any country. We have seen that he fought bravely against the Danes, and won a great victory over them; and what was even more important than this, that he saw when it was desirable to leave off fighting and make a peace with his enemies. It was not possible at that time to drive out the Danes altogether, and so

AN ANGLO-SAXON SHIP.

Alfred thought it better to try and make the part of England which was left free from them prosperous and happy.

2. He gave up his whole life and all his thoughts to the welfare of his people. In the long wars with the Danes many of the old laws had been neglected. Alfred restored them, and took care that all men should live in peace and order. He took great pains to make the roads secure, that men might travel easily from one end of his realm to the other, and carry on trade, so as to

become prosperous and rich. He built a fleet, and encouraged his people to trade with foreign lands, and to explore those that were hardly known. Some of his vessels went as far as Iceland and Norway, and the White Sea, in Russia.

3. "All my life," said Alfred, "I have striven to live worthily." He wanted to make his people not only stronger and richer, but also wiser and better than they had been before. He founded schools, and encouraged parents to send their children to them, so that every one might learn to read and write. And in order that they should not want books to read, he translated some of the best of those written in Latin into the English language. Among these was a description of the world, or geography, as we should call it now. Alfred not only translated this book, but added to it many things about the British isles and other countries which he had found out himself, or learnt from the sailors he had talked with.

4. How strong and united the English became under him was seen when the Danes again attacked the English. Alfred easily drove them back in the last years of his reign; and after his death, his son, Edward, and his grandson, Athelstan, carried on the war successfully, and won back at first Mercia, and afterwards the eastern parts of the country, until at length, in 937, a great victory won by Athelstan, at Brunanburgh, made him master of almost the whole of the Danelagh. This work went on under Athelstan's successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, so that the whole of England was gradually becoming really

united under the West Saxon kings. But the Danes in the Danelagh continued to keep up many of their Danish laws, and were not always very friendly with their English neighbours.

5. King Edgar, the grandson of Athelstan, who reigned from 958 to 975 A.D., and his great minister, Dunstan, did much to unite England, and to make the English and Danes live together peaceably under one government. Not only the Danes and the people of the various English kingdoms came to look upon Edgar as their king, but also the Welsh tribes who lived in Wales and Cumberland; and many chiefs of the Scots paid him tribute, and considered him their lord. Thus Edgar ruled over a much larger part of Britain than any king before him.

6. Archbishop Dunstan, who helped Edgar to make his laws, and had a large share in carrying on the government, tried, as Alfred had done, to make England stronger by making her people wiser. So he encouraged education as much as Alfred did, and sent for learned men from over the sea to teach the English; and he himself did much to make them fonder of books and music and beautiful buildings. He took care that the monks and priests should not grow lazy and forget their duties, making them live virtuously, and work hard.

7. Many wise laws were drawn up by Dunstan in Edgar's time. Though the Danes were still allowed to keep some of their old customs, rules were laid down so that Englishmen and Danes might live peaceably together and be content. To maintain order Edgar enforced an old English custom which required every

man's neighbours to be responsible for his behaviour, and to see that he did not break the laws, and that he should be punished if he did.

8. Now that the kings had become so great and had so much fighting to do, they had many followers whom they rewarded by giving to them lands. In return for these lands they fought for the king and served him. These men were called thanes (which properly means servants) of the king. When any thane had more land than he wanted he gave it to other men, who in turn became his thanes, and were bound to do him service in war and peace when he required them. The poorer men also generally put themselves under some thane, and agreed to do him service on condition of receiving his protection when they needed it. So that from highest to lowest every man was bound to his neighbour either to serve him, or to protect him, or to keep him in order. And now that there was one king over all England, the king's Council of the Wise Men became more important, and met oftener than before, and did many things which formerly had been left to the different shire-meetings.

LESSON VIII.

THE DANISH KINGS.

1. The peace which had prevailed in England under Edgar "the Peaceful," came to an end after his death.

His son Edward could not keep the land together as he had done, and the Mercians and Northumbrians, as well as the Danes, rose in revolt. And when Edward, "the Martyr," as he was called, was murdered by his step-mother Elfrida, his brother Ethelred, who succeeded him, showed himself quite unable to govern well. He was a weak prince, who was called Ethelred the Unready because he was undecided in his plans and actions. But even if he had been stronger and wiser he could not perhaps have done much against the Danes now that the people of the north did not readily support him. So the Danes from Denmark came over the sea again, as they used to do in the old times, and burnt and plundered in England.

2. Ethelred, finding he could not beat them in fighting, resolved to pay them money to keep away. But this only brought over fresh swarms of Danes, anxious to get more of the tribute-money. At last Ethelred, in despair, determined on the unwise and wicked step of a great massacre of the Danes in England. His servants fell upon them unawares, and many thousands, among whom were some who had lived quietly and peaceably in the Danelagh for years, were put to death.

3. This deed was as foolish as it was wicked. It did not in any way serve to keep away the Danes. Sweyn, King of Denmark, came in great rage and marched from end to end of the country, burning and slaying as he went. Ethelred was obliged to flee from England, and to go to Normandy in France, where his wife had come from. Sweyn made himself King of

England, and left the kingdom to his son Canute after him. Edmund Ironside, the son of Ethelred, fought bravely against him for a time, but he did not live long, and then Canute became king without opposition. Then for a time the line of the English kings came to an end, and England was under foreign rulers.

4. England was now part of Canute's great empire; Denmark and part of Norway being also in his hands. But the Danes had been so long in England, and were so like the English in their speech and habits, that the English hardly considered Canute a foreigner, and were willing to obey him, especially as he ruled the land wisely and well. He had been a stern and cruel leader in warfare, but in his later days he became a very just and excellent king. He would not allow any fighting between the English and the Danes, and under him the land was at peace once more. He was careful about religion, and would not allow priests or monks to be molested; and he went on a pilgrimage to Rome to see the Pope and the city which all Christians reverenced, because the head of their religion dwelt there.

5. Canute's realms were so large that he found it difficult to govern them all himself. England he divided into the four great districts of Wessex, Mercia, Northumberland, and East Anglia, setting over each a governor who was called by the Danish name of *earl*. He kept a body of paid soldiers who were ready to fight whenever he called upon them; so that there was now another army in England beside the one formed by the people.

6. Canute was more powerful than the English kings had been before him, and he did not choose to consult the Wise Men as much as they had

NORMAN SHIPS.

done. He made laws by himself, and did not always think it necessary to get the Wise Men to consent to them. But the laws were generally just and good, such as Edgar's had been.

7. The just rule of Canute was not continued by his sons Harold and Hardicanute. They were rash and violent, and in their reign many evil deeds were done. There was civil war between them, and the land was troubled. When Hardicanute died people were glad to welcome as king the young son of Ethelred and Emma. He was called Edward the Confessor, because he was very pious and fond of priests and monks.

LESSON IX.

THE ENGLISH AND THE NORMANS.

1. We saw that while many of the Northmen were invading and plundering England, another body had settled in the north of France. And as the French king could not drive them out, he was obliged to make a treaty with them (much in the same way as Alfred had made a peace with the Danes), granting them possession of the country, which was thenceforth called Normandy, meaning the land of the Northmen—or "Normans."

2. In those times power and wealth depended upon the possession of *land*. Kings and the greatest nobles had but little other wealth, and as the world was full of violence, and every man had to defend himself by force, rulers secured followers to fight for them against their enemies and against evil-doers by giving to warriors portions of their vast estate to live on. In return these warriors maintained the law within the estates (or "*fiefs*" as they were called) thus given to

them. They also fought for their lord when he needed help, and undertook to serve and obey him in certain things. This system of owning land, and maintaining order, and providing armies was called the "*feudal system.*" The King of the French gave Normandy to the Norman Duke on these conditions, and the Duke divided it amongst his followers in return for similar services.

3. The Normans had lived so long in France, that they had given up their old language, which was like that of the Danes in England, and had learnt to speak the French tongue. They learnt many other things besides from the French, and from the monks who came among them in France. They became devout Christians, and built beautiful abbeys and churches; and there were many men among them who were fond of learning and study.

4. They cared more about books, and beautiful things, and a refined way of living than the English did, who were a rude and rough people compared to them. They had a great talent, too, for governing and making laws, and their lawyers were celebrated all over Europe. But in Normandy the people were more under the power of the great men than in England, where the poorest man, even one who had no land of his own except such as he was allowed to hold by doing service to some lord, knew that if he was accused of any crime he would be tried justly, and allowed to go free if his neighbours would swear that he was innocent.

5. Edward the Confessor had been brought up in Normandy, and all his life he continued to be very fond

of Normans. He brought many Normans over and made them his servants and councillors. Various high offices were given to them, and one of them was even made Archbishop of Canterbury. But the English did not like to see so many foreigners filling high places in the country; so there was a good deal of discontent with Edward and his way of ruling, though all men respected him for his piety.

6. Godwin, the Earl of Wessex, a very powerful nobleman, put himself at the head of the party who wanted the government to be more English and less Norman, and tried to get Edward to send away the strangers. It is clear, however, that the English were not yet united, for the Earls of Mercia and Northumbria were opposed to Godwin, and managed to drive him out of the country for a time. But he came back soon after, and succeeded in expelling most of the king's Norman councillors.

7. Godwin soon afterwards died, and his son Harold succeeded him as Earl of Wessex, and during the last few years of Edward's reign it was he who really carried on the government of England. For the king's thoughts were busy about works of piety, and the completion of the beautiful church at Westminster, which he had begun to build. Harold ruled England well and kept it in peace; but he did not make the country more united than it had been before, and many of the people of the north, and the Danes of the eastern counties, were angry at being governed by a ruler of the West Saxons.

8. When Edward died, in the year 1066, without

leaving any children, Harold was chosen King of England, because he seemed the only man who was at hand and fit for the post. There was indeed a prince called Edgar the Atheling, a grandson of the brave Edmund Ironside, who was the next heir to the throne; but he was very young, and so the Wise Men thought it would be better to have Harold for their king.

9. Harold met with great difficulties when he began to reign. The men of Northumbria were discontented, and his own brother Tostig, who was Earl of Northumbria, revolted against him and claimed to be king himself; and Harold Hardrada, the King of the Northmen of Norway, prepared to bring over a great army to help Tostig.

10. Even more dangerous to Harold than these enemies was William, the Duke of the Normans. William had been very friendly with Edward the Confessor, and had got that king to promise that if he died without children William should be king after him. Many of the English nobles had agreed to support William, and Harold himself had once fallen into William's power, during Edward's reign, and had been compelled to swear that he would not oppose the claim of the Norman duke. So that when Harold was chosen king, William was indignant, and determined to get possession of the crown, which he thought was rightfully his. He accordingly got together a great army of Normans and Frenchmen, and prepared to invade England.

11. But before William could cross the sea, the

HAROLD SWEARING TO SUPPORT THE CLAIMS OF THE DUKE OF NORMANDY.

Norwegian king and Tostig landed in Yorkshire. Harold marched against them, and defeated them in a great battle at Stamford Bridge, not far from York. But while Harold was fighting in the north, William and his followers had sailed over from France and landed at Pevensey, on the coast of Sussex. Harold marched southward with such troops as he could collect. But the men of the north and east would not follow him, so that he had only his own Wessex men, and the trained body of soldiers whom he kept in his pay, as Canute had done before. If all the fighting men of England had joined Harold, the Normans would have been easily driven away.

12. At Senlac, near Hastings, the great battle was fought (Oct. 15, 1066). The English fought on foot, and were armed chiefly with swords and battle-axes. The Norman knights fought on horseback, and besides the knights there were many archers with them. The English formed themselves into a compact mass, and though the Normans charged them again and again, they could not break them or force them back. But the Normans, though not braver, were more skilful than the English. Some of their horsemen pretended to be put to flight, and when the English rashly hastened out to pursue them, the Normans turned, and, suddenly charging, threw their enemies into confusion. The solid square of the English was broken, but they fought on bravely, with their best men falling fast under the Norman arrows. At last Harold himself was killed, and then the few English who remained fled, and left the victory to the Normans.

LESSON X.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. There was no army in England which could stand against William after Harold was defeated; but the English held out in the few fortified towns that there were, and in the strong places of the open country, such as the fens and marsh-lands of the Isle of Ely. It was full four years before William had really become conqueror of the country. But he was king not only by conquest; for soon after the battle of Hastings many of the great men of the land, with Edgar the Atheling at their head, offered him the crown. So that William could say he had been chosen king by the Council of the Wise Men, as Harold and other kings had been before.

2. This Norman Conquest was one of the most important events in English history, and it brought about many great changes. Almost all the land in the kingdom was taken from the English owners, and given to the Norman knights as a reward for their services, and to secure their help in governing the country and keeping the English in order.

3. We have seen that the English kings used to grant land to their followers in this manner, making them agree to perform faithful service in return. But William's grants to his men were far wider than any of the English kings. He had almost the whole of England to dispose of, for all who had refused to acknowledge him as king were condemned as rebels,

and their land was therefore forfeited to him. Some of this he gave back to the English owners; but the greater part of it was given to his chief warriors, who in their turn gave away much of it to their followers. The great lords held their land from the king on the condition that they would fight for him in war-time and help him in peace; and the lords gave away part of their lands on like terms. But the king made all of them, whether they held their land direct from him or not, swear to be true and faithful to him; for he was afraid that the men who held most land—the barons, as they were called—might refuse to be governed by the king, and become almost like independent kings themselves.

4. William also took care to scatter the estates which he gave the great barons about the country, so that they might not be able easily to bring together their men, as they could have done if all their lands had been close together.

5. It was very necessary that the king should take care not to let the barons become too powerful; for as they had come from a foreign country, and many of them merely came to England to get wealth and lands, they often treated the English on their estates badly, and oppressed them a good deal. The poorer men among the English became much worse off than they had been under the native kings. They were so bound to the lord upon whose lands they lived, that they became *serfs*—that is, they might not quit their lord's land when they wished, and had to serve and obey him.

6. Among the Normans, when a man had a great estate, it was thought that he had the right to be the judge of the men who lived on it; and when they had any disputes they had to settle them before him. So that Norman lords often became the judges of Englishmen. This the English did not like, for the Normans did not understand their language or their laws, and often introduced new ways of deciding lawsuits.

7. One of these was called the *ordeal of battle.* When one man accused another of a crime, the Normans used to make the two fight together with swords or battle-axes till one was killed or badly wounded; and that one was held to be the guilty person. The English preferred their old way, that a man's friends and neighbours should swear to his character; and often they paid large sums of money to the king in order that they might be allowed to keep the old English custom in lawsuits instead of the Norman one.

8. Under the old kings the country had never been quite united; the Danes and the Englishmen of the north did not consider themselves to be quite the same people as the men of the south. But now that there was a strong king, with his foreign followers, who ruled all parts of the country alike, the English forgot these differences, and came to look upon themselves as all forming one nation. At first the Normans kept quite apart from the English, and would have nothing to do with them, treating them as a conquered people; but being few in numbers, while the English were many, they gradually mingled with them, and at last got to consider themselves also

A NORMAN CASTLE, WITH PORTCULLIS, DRAWBRIDGE, AND MOAT.

as belonging to the English nation. In the end, the Normans came to be proud of the name of Englishmen, which they had at first greatly despised.

9. The Normans were skilful in building, and all over England erected many great castles, monasteries, and churches. It was necessary for the barons, who dwelt with their families and a few followers in the midst of the English whom they had conquered, to have strong places to live in. So they built great castles, with massive square towers, and walls sometimes twelve or fifteen feet thick, and very small windows, so that it might be difficult to shoot arrows into the rooms. Round the outside was a deep ditch filled with water, called the moat, with a movable wooden bridge over it, which could be drawn up by the people inside the castle. There were no guns or cannons used in warfare at that time, but only bows and arrows; so that one of these castles, when it was attacked, could be defended against a very great number of besiegers.

10. The Normans also built many beautiful cathedrals, and churches, and abbeys, for monks and nuns, who dwelt there out of the strife of the world, and gave their lives to prayer and learning, and works of charity.

11. The Normans continued to speak French in England, and for many generations French was the language of the upper classes, and of the government. Gradually, however, they learnt English, but there are a great many words in our language which the Normans taught the English. The words we use most commonly, and nearly all those which signify things and persons we often require to mention, such as "father," "mother," "man," "child," "bread," are English.

Nearly all our longer words, and those dealing with matters of government, law, and learning, come from the French.

LESSON XI.

THE NORMAN KINGS.

1. William the Conqueror was King of England for about twenty years after the battle of Hastings. He had had hard work to get possession of the crown, and he was determined to keep it securely. He put down a rebellion of the English Earls of Mercia and Northumbria with great severity; and because he was afraid that the men of the north were not quite obedient to him, and might give him and his successors some trouble (especially if the Danes came to help them), he went through northern England with an army, and laid waste the land between the river Humber and the river Tweed. Villages were burnt and towns destroyed, and their inhabitants driven out into the woods and mountains; so that for fifty years afterwards this district was almost a desert.

2. In the south William did an act which was almost as cruel. He was very fond of hunting the stag and the wild boar, which used to roam in freedom in the thick woods of England. "He loved the tall deer," said an English writer of that time, "as though he had been their father." In order that there might be plenty of deer for the king to hunt, he drove the

people away from their villages in a large part of Hampshire, and made the district into a royal forest, which is still called the New Forest. Very cruel laws were made to punish any one who should hunt in the king's forests or kill any of his deer.

3. But though William was stern and cruel, he did many things which were good for the country. Under him England was more peaceable and better ruled than it had been since the time of Canute. Though he had come as a conqueror, he considered the English his people, and would not let the Norman nobles oppress them as much as they would.

4. One of the most famous things William did was to order a great book, called the Domesday Book, to be made. This book contained the names of all the men who held land in England, with the amount of their property, and the value of all their goods and cattle. It is still in existence, and it tells us a great deal about the English people in William's time. We learn from it how the land was divided, how many men lived on each estate, how many ploughs and implements there were, how many cattle, sheep, and pigs. William wanted to find out exactly what taxes the people could afford to pay, so that each man might be made to pay neither more nor less than his rightful share.

5. William the Conqueror's son, William Rufus, reigned from 1087 to 1100. He was a more cruel and violent man than his father had been, and he governed far less justly. His chief aim was to get as much money as possible from his subjects, and to do

this he committed many wicked acts. His servants and ministers were sent about the country to raise heavy taxes from the people, and to get money from the nobles on all sorts of unjust pretexts.

6. One of William's ways of getting money was by keeping the lands belonging to the abbots and bishops in his own hands. When the Archbishop of Canterbury died, the king would not appoint a successor to him for some time. At last he was persuaded to make a Norman priest, named Anselm, Archbishop. Anselm was famous for his learning and piety, as well as for his gentleness, and William thought he would be able to do as he liked with him. But Anselm spoke out boldly against the king's wickedness, so that very soon there was an open quarrel. Anselm had to go back to Normandy, and for the rest of his reign William kept the archbishopric of Canterbury in his own hands.

7. Yet though William was such a bad king he was supported by the people. The Norman barons were tired of his oppression, and would have deposed him, and chosen as king his brother Robert, to whom Normandy had been left by William the Conqueror. But the English people helped him to put down the rebellion; for they knew that however badly the king treated them, the Normans, if they had their own way, would treat them worse.

8. Henry I., the brother of William Rufus, who succeeded him on the throne, owed even more to the assistance of the English people. By their aid he was able to defeat Robert, and make him a prisoner. He kept the barons in order, and made them obey the

laws; and he revived some of the old English laws which had been made in the time of Edward the Confessor.

9. This caused him to be very popular with the people. He became even more so when he married Matilda, the great-granddaughter of Edmund Ironside. The English were very pleased at this, for they no longer looked on the king as a foreigner, now that he had united himself with a descendant of the old English kings who had reigned before the Conquest.

10. Henry called back Anselm to England, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury again. They did not get on quite well at first, because Anselm thought that an Archbishop of Canterbury had no superior but the Pope at Rome, and need not obey the king in Church matters; while Henry said, as William the Conqueror had said before him, that the Church of England belonged specially to the realm of England, and that the king was its head. But Henry and Anselm were too wise to quarrel, and they managed to make up their differences and keep on good terms with each other.

11. Henry I. reigned for thirty-five years (1100—1135), respected by the people and feared by the barons, and taking care that his laws were faithfully obeyed. His only son, William, died before him, so that at his death his daughter, Matilda or Maud, who had been married to the Emperor of Germany, was next heiress to the throne.

LESSON XII.

HENRY OF ANJOU.

1. The barons had sworn to Henry that they would make his daughter queen. But when he died, many of them refused to support her, and preferred to have Stephen, the son of Henry's sister, for their king. Stephen accordingly was crowned, and reigned for nineteen years. But Maud would not give up her claim, and as some of the barons supported her, and she was assisted with men and money sent from abroad, she was able to carry on war against Stephen during all his reign.

2. This was a time of great misery for England. William the Conqueror and his sons had been strong kings, and had kept the barons down. Now that there was no real king in the country, but only two people fighting for the crown, the barons were able to do very much as they liked. Many more castles were built, and the men who held them often acted like mere robbers. They had no regard for the laws of the country, and there was no one to force them to obey. Each baron had his troop of horsemen, clad in armour, and trained to the use of sword and lance, who fought at his command; and with these he carried on a little war against his neighbours, doing much injury to the peasants round about. Villages were attacked, and towns plundered of all their valuable goods and merchandise. Often men were seized when travelling on the high roads and carried to the castles; and there,

ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

Shewing
CONTINENTAL POSSESSIONS OF ENGLAND
in the
12th. CENTURY,
AND ILLUSTRATING THE
HUNDRED YEARS WAR WITH FRANCE.

NOTE.-*The portion shaded indicates the English possessions in the reign of Henry II.*

Typo. Etching Co. del. et sc.

if they would not pay a large sum as ransom, they were cruelly tortured, or cast into dungeons and left till they were eaten by rats, or died of hunger.

3. Stephen was too much occupied in fighting against Maud and her young son Henry to put an end to these practices. But in 1154 he died, and then Henry came to the throne of England as Henry II. His father, Geoffrey, whom Maud had married after the death of her first husband, the emperor, had been count or lord of Anjou, a large district in the west of France, stretching southward from Normandy. And by his marriage with a French princess, named Eleanor of Aquitaine, Henry came into possession of a good deal more of France. In fact, he ruled over a larger territory in France than the French king himself; and from this time onward for 400 years the English kings held French possessions, and were a good deal mixed up in the affairs of France. Henry himself is often known as Henry of Anjou, from his father's title, or as Henry Plantagenet, from a French word signifying a sprig of broom, which was the crest of his family.

4. Henry was a very young man when he came to the throne; but he was active and vigorous, and quite determined to put down the abuses which had grown up in the country during the few years previous. He overthrew many of the castles which the barons had built, and would not allow them to erect others. He had hard work at first to get the country into an orderly condition again, and to make the unruly barons obey the law. But he was assisted by skilful and industrious ministers, and the people generally were

very glad to support him, because they were tired of the disturbances and disorders, and above all of the tyranny of the barons in Stephen's time.

5. No government can be carried on properly unless the taxes are paid by the people regularly. Henry appointed a number of officers to superintend the collection and payment of the rents, fines, and taxes out of which the expenses of the Government were paid. They met at Westminster round a table covered with a chequered cloth, and so they came to be called the Chamber or Court of the Exchequer. But, on account of the troubled state in which the country had been, they found it very difficult to get in the taxes, and to settle exactly how much each man was able to pay.

6. So Henry ordered the officers of the Exchequer to visit the various parts of England from time to time, and, in each place they came to, to consult certain men chosen from the inhabitants as to the amount the people there ought to pay. These chosen men were called the *jury*, from a Latin word which means to swear, because they had to swear that they would answer truly the questions of the king's officers. Thus the people felt that, though the taxes were imposed on them by the king, they had themselves some share in arranging the amount they were to pay, and that each man's tax was fairly proportioned to his property.

7. Henry was zealous to secure justice, and men who were not satisfied with their sentence would be tried by the king himself, or one of his great law-officers. But there were hardly any roads in the country, and

travelling was difficult and dangerous; so that it was very inconvenient for all suitors to come up to London. Henry, therefore, ordered his law-officers to go round the country three or four times a year, and to try cases at the principal town in each county. These journeys of the judges were called their *circuits;* and when they stopped at a town and tried criminals, it was called the *assizes*. This custom of the judges going on circuit and holding the assizes has been continued from the time of Henry II. right down to our own days.

8. The judges were assisted by a jury, composed of the chief and most trustworthy men of the neighbourhood where any crime had been committed, or any matter was in dispute. At first they acted rather as witnesses than as judges, stating what they knew about the matter, and the character of the person accused. But after the time of Henry II. and his sons the jury began to judge for themselves whether a person on trial was guilty or innocent; or, when two men disputed about a thing, which was right, and to decide accordingly. This is called trial by jury, which gives every Englishman the benefit of being judged by his own neighbours and equals.

LESSON XIII.

THE KING AND THE CHURCH.

1. By these reforms Henry II. succeeded in making the country peaceable and orderly. But when there

was one law, which all men had to obey, an end was made of the division between different classes of men. The Normans left off looking upon themselves as belonging to a different nation from the English, now that they had lived so long among them, and had sometimes married English wives.

2. But there was one class whom the king found it very difficult to manage, and that was the clergy. The monks and priests were thought to be outside the World over which kings and princes ruled. They looked up to the Pope as their only head, and claimed to be governed only by the laws of the Church. If a clergyman committed a crime, he was not tried for it by the king's judges in the county court, but in a special court of law before ecclesiastical judges. But these judges were often inclined to look very leniently on the offences which had been done by other Churchmen. Thus it happened that frequently very grave crimes, such as murder or robbery, might be committed by clergymen, and the offenders go unpunished.

3. This state of things would not have done so much harm if all the clergy had been good and virtuous men. There were many of them who were so, and who lived noble lives, praying to God and doing charitable acts among the poor, and tilling the barren lands around the monasteries. But there were also many idle and worthless persons who had become clergymen because they knew that, however lazy they were, they would be supported out of the money which pious people had given to the Church. And many very

bad men had joined the Church, so that if they cheated, or did anything else that was wrong, they might be tried by the Church courts, and escape the punishment which ought justly to have come upon them. So that Henry's attempts to make all his people obey his laws could not succeed so long as the clergy were allowed their separate courts, and were not completely under the authority of the Government. Besides, the Churchmen thought that, as the Pope was their head, they ought to pay taxes to him alone, and would not pay the taxes which the king got from all the rest of his subjects.

4. Henry made Thomas à Becket, who had been his friend and companion in business and pleasure, Archbishop of Canterbury. He thought that Becket would help him to put an end to these abuses of the Church. But Becket, as soon as he became archbishop, thought it his duty to defend the cause of the Church, and violently opposed the king's efforts. There was a bitter quarrel. Henry assembled a great council at the town of Clarendon, and there laws were made to limit the great power of the Church courts, and to compel the clergy to obey the king's law.

5. Becket would not give way, and had to leave England and remain away for six years. When he did return, in 1170, he was murdered in his cathedral at Canterbury by four knights, who overheard some passionate words of the king, and thought that the deed would be pleasing to him. But Henry grieved deeply at the murder; and the people generally, then and long afterwards, looked upon Becket as a saint,

or holy man, and used to make journeys or pilgrimages from all parts of the kingdom to visit his tomb at Canterbury. Henry lost the love of his people by this terrible crime, and could never succeed completely in making the clergymen obedient to the same law as the rest of his subjects.

6. Henry was the ruler over greater dominions than any English king since Canute. In the year 1171 he made an expedition to Ireland, and conquered a part of that country. The people of Ireland had never been subdued by the English and Saxons, though there were some settlements of Northmen and Danes on the coast. In early times Ireland had been a flourishing country, full of monasteries and learned men. But long before Henry II.'s days Ireland had become quite barbarous. It was divided among a number of princes, who were always fighting with each other; and one of these asked some of the Norman nobles to come over and help him against his enemies, very much as the Britons had asked the English 700 years before.

7. The Normans, who fought on horseback, and were clothed in stout steel armour, very easily defeated the half-naked Irish; and then Henry got the Pope to declare that he was rightful king of the island. But it was many centuries before the English kings were really rulers of the greater part of Ireland. In the meantime, many of the English settled along the eastern coast, and founded some towns there; but in the centre and west the natives remained in their old barbarous state, and were constantly engaged in fighting among themselves.

8. Besides this, Henry had got large possessions in France through his father and his wife. The whole of the western half of that country, from the English Channel to the Pyrenees, belonged to him. He was engaged in warfare with the King of France on account of these large French possessions of his, and about the same time the King of Scots invaded northern England. Henry was quite strong enough to defend himself against his enemies abroad; but the King of France stirred up his barons and his own sons to rebel against him. He was accordingly obliged to make a treaty of peace with his enemies, yielding many of their demands. In 1189 the life of this great king ended sorrowfully, on account of his defeat, and of the ungrateful conduct of his children.

LESSON XIV.

THE CRUSADES.

1. During the hundred years between the death of William the Conqueror and that of Henry II., the great wars called the Crusades had been going on. The people of those times used to go on pilgrimages to the places where saints and holy men had lived, or were buried, because they thought that if they did so the saints would intercede for them with God, and would cleanse them from their sins. So we have seen that many English people visited the tomb of Thomas à Becket at Canterbury.

CRUSADERS ON THE MARCH.

2. There were many places on the continent of Europe—such as Rome, the city of St. Peter—which these travellers, or pilgrims, as they were called, liked to visit; but the most famous place of all, and the one which every man in those days would have gone to, if he could, was Jerusalem, in Palestine, or the Holy Land, where Jesus Christ had lived and preached, and where His body had lain buried. Men would go through any toils and dangers, and thought themselves sure of happiness ever after, if they could only once in their life pay a visit to Jerusalem.

3. The Holy Land was in the hands of a people called the Saracens, who were not Christians but Mohammedans, or believers in the religion preached by an Arab prophet named Mohammed. They looked upon the Christians as unbelievers, and often treated the pilgrims who came to Jerusalem very cruelly, and at last would not let them come there at all. The Christians all through Europe were very indignant at this. The popes and monks preached to them, and told them that it would be a noble thing if the men who could fight should join together to attack the Saracens, and take the Holy Land from them. So many of the princes and great nobles raised as many men as they could, sometimes selling their lands to get more money, and went to the Holy Land to do battle against the infidels.

4. These wars were called the Crusades, because all the men who took part in them wore crosses on their clothes or armour, to show the holy purpose on which they were engaged. The Crusades continued for 200

years, but with small success. The way to the Holy Land was such a long one, and the climate was so trying to the men of northern and western Europe, that most of the Crusaders perished before they got a chance of fighting with the Saracens. The Christians managed to get possession of Jerusalem for a time, but they lost it again. Though fresh armies of Crusaders were constantly setting out for the Holy Land, the Mohammedans kept their hold on it, and have it in their own hands to this day.

5. At first the English took less part in the Crusades than the people of France and Germany. Henry II.'s son and successor, Richard I., who was called Cœur-de-Lion, or Lion-Heart, because of his great bravery, had been brought up in France, and hardly knew anything of England and the English. As soon as his father was dead, he raised a great army of men from England and his French possessions, and sailed for the Holy Land. He did some very brave deeds, and filled the Saracens with terror. But though he was a valiant warrior, he was not a good leader. He was too anxious to gain glory for himself, and could not refrain from quarrelling with the other princes who led armies in the Crusade. So that his campaign ended in failure, and he had to turn back before he could reach Jerusalem, after losing almost the whole of his army. On his way back through Central Europe, he was seized by the Duke of Austria, and kept in prison till the English got together a large sum of money, and paid it for his release.

6. When Richard returned, he did not remain long

in England to attend to its government. He spent the rest of his life in carrying on a war against the King of France, and was at last killed in 1199, while besieging a little castle in which he believed a sum of money was hidden.

7. Richard I. had not done much for England, but the effects of his father's wise government continued in his reign. The great officers of state carried on the government, and collected the taxes in the way Henry II. had arranged. Owing to the long absence of the king, the people got more into the way of managing their own affairs. Richard I. was always in need of money, so that often he sold to the people of the towns the right to collect their own taxes, and to appoint their own magistrates. This made them stronger, and more independent, and better fitted to take a share in the management of the affairs of the country.

LESSON XV.

THE GREAT CHARTER.

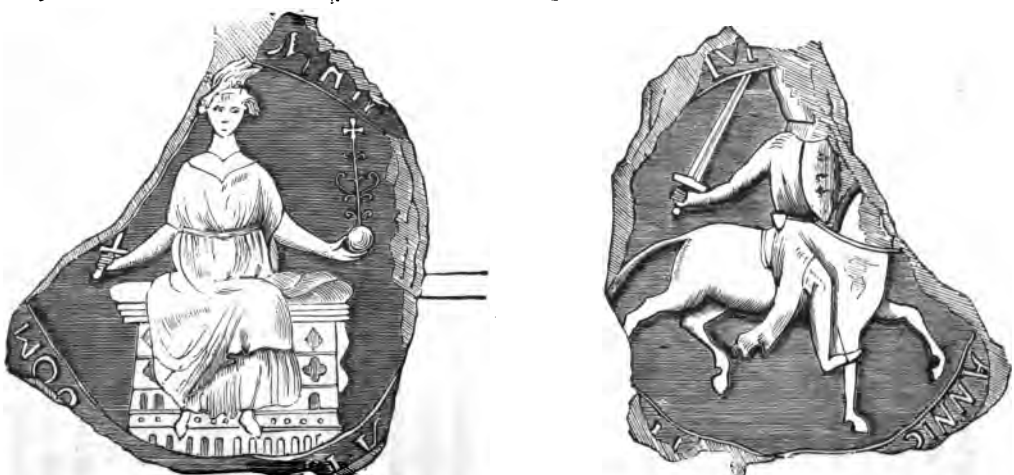
1. In the reign of Richard I.'s brother, John (1199—1216), it was seen that the people would no longer suffer a bad king to rule them as he pleased. At the beginning of his reign John committed a great crime by the murder of Arthur, the son of his brother Geoffrey, because he feared that Arthur might be considered by some to have a better right to the crown

than himself. As John was not only King of England, but also ruler of large portions of France, the French king called upon him to answer for his conduct. This led to a war between them, in which John lost all Normandy and the other districts in the north and west of France which had been left him by his father. Only Aquitaine, or the part south of the river Loire, remained to him. Yet this loss was a good thing for England; for, owing to it, the barons were now altogether cut off from Normandy, and became one with the English people.

2. John turned out to be a very bad ruler. His only care seemed to be to get money from his subjects to supply his own needs and pleasures; and for this purpose he oppressed and plundered all classes of them. He tried to get more money from the barons than they were bound to give him for their lands, and raised heavy taxes from the towns. Much of the trade of the country was carried on by the Jews, who were a rich and industrious class. By threats and ill-treatment John managed to extort large sums of money from them. The rules which Henry II. had made, in order that justice might be done between the king and the people, were no longer regarded.

3. Before long John got into a bitter quarrel also with the clergy. He treated the monks as badly as he did other people, and was regardless of their rights. His conduct led to a violent dispute with the Pope about the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury, which ended in the Pope laying England under what was called an *Interdict*. This meant that the clergy

Johanne Dorr Willmo Marescallo Comitis Penbroke. Willmo Comitis Sar Willmi Comitis Gareun. Willmo Comitis Arundell. Willmo de Mandeya Constabulario Scocie Warino filio Geroldi. Petro filio Herebti Iustic de Burgo Seneschallo Pictauie Hugone de Nevill. Matheo filio Herebti. Thome Basset. Alam



SPECIMEN OF THE WRITING OF THE GREAT CHARTER, AND GREAT SEAL OF KING JOHN AFFIXED THERETO.

were forbidden to perform any of the usual services of the Church, which was a very serious thing in those days. The people could not get the clergy to marry them, nor to christen their children, nor to read prayers for the sick. The church-bells were silent, and there were no services or singing in the churches on Sundays and saints' days. The dead were often left unburied, for the priests would not read the funeral service over them, or allow them to be buried in the churchyards.

4. This was felt by the nation generally more than it was by John; but at last the Pope said that he would tell the people they need no longer obey John as king, and would send the King of France with an army to take his crown from him. Then John gave way, and accepted Langton, the archbishop whom the Pope had appointed. But the Pope would not take away the interdict till John agreed to pay tribute to him, and to hold his kingdom of England as the Pope's vassal or servant.

5. The people were indignant at this, all the more because John still governed as badly as ever. And now it was seen how far the English had become an united nation; for all classes joined together against the king, and he had none to help him but some foreign soldiers whom he had hired and brought to England. The barons, with Langton, the archbishop whom the Pope had appointed, at their head, determined that they would no longer allow John to continue his tyrannical conduct. They assembled in arms with their followers, and as John had no support but that of his few foreign

troops, he was obliged to yield. A meeting took place at Runnymead, near Staines, in June, 1215, between the king and the principal barons, among whom was the Mayor of London; and John was compelled to agree to the terms which the barons had set down in a celebrated paper called the Great Charter.

6. The Great Charter was not meant to contain anything new, but only to say exactly what the old liberties of England were, and how the king was bound to treat his subjects. The things it insisted on most were these two. First, no man in England was to be condemned to any punishment except after a lawful trial, and by the judgment of men of the same rank in life as himself. Secondly, the king was not to ask money or taxes from any man except such as the nation had agreed to give him. These two conditions of the Charter were of the greatest importance. They made it illegal for the king or his officers to seize any man unless he should be found guilty of a crime by his fellow-Englishman, and to take any part of a man's property except so much as had been legally granted as a tax. And so, in all the time that came after, Englishmen looked upon the Charter as a great safeguard of their liberties, and again and again compelled their kings to acknowledge that they were bound by it.

7. The Great Charter had been gained by the barons, for they alone were sufficiently strong to compel the king to grant it. But they had not acted for themselves alone; they had worked for the common liberty of the whole people, and had taken care to guard the

rights of the small landholders, of the peasants, and of the people of the towns.

8. John had signed the Great Charter, but he did not mean to keep it if he could help it. He hired more soldiers from abroad, and made war upon the barons; and they, fearing that the king would be too strong for them, got Lewis, the son of the French king, to come over with an army and help them. But John's army was nearly swept away by the tide as he was crossing the Wash, and the king himself, worn out by rage and disappointment, died soon after (1216). He left a little son named Henry. A party of the barons wished to make Lewis king, but most of them preferred an English sovereign, even though he was a child. Lewis was therefore obliged to return to France, and Henry III. (1216—1272) became king.

LESSON XVI.

THE PARLIAMENT.

1. For the first few years of Henry III.'s reign, while he was still a child, the country was well governed by his guardians, William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, and Hubert de Burgh, a wise and skilful governor. But when Henry III. grew to be a man, he dismissed Hubert de Burgh, and then governed the country himself almost as badly as John had done. He had married a French wife, and he allowed her relations and countrymen to come to England and

make themselves rich there. Besides, he was under the influence of the Pope, and encouraged Italian priests to come into the country and send money out of it to Rome.

2. The English endured this bad government for some time. But at last, in 1258, the barons, headed by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, resolved to make the king send away his foreign favourites and govern by their advice. A great council—or Parliament, as it was now called—of the barons assembled at Oxford, and the king had to consent to banish the foreigners, and to allow a number of persons, whom the barons named, to receive the taxes and carry on the government. But the Pope declared that Henry need not keep this agreement, and some of the barons sided with him, because they were jealous of Simon de Montfort, and thought that he wanted to do too much for the smaller landholders. So there was once more civil war in England.

3. However, many of the barons sided with Simon de Montfort, and besides, the lesser holders of land, and the people of the great towns joined with him. These towns had grown to be of much greater importance, because trade had of late increased so much in England. Most of the towns had by this time got the right of appointing their own magistrates and officers, and of making laws for their own citizens. It was largely by their help that in 1264 Earl Simon was able to defeat the king in a battle at Lewes, and to take both him and his eldest son Edward prisoners.

4. In the next year (1265) happened one of the most

important events in the history of our country. Simon determined to consult the whole nation upon the way in which the kingdom should be governed. Now, there had often been Great Councils of the barons to settle the affairs of the nation. But De Montfort thought that the small landowners, and the traders of the towns, ought to have something to say in the matter as well. But the small landowners and the townspeople were too many to come up from the country to Parliament like the barons, so Simon ordered that a certain number should be chosen to come and speak for the rest, or to act as their *representatives*, as it is called. Out of this new assembly the House of Commons has grown, while the old Great Council of the barons has become the House of Lords. The representatives of the people gradually gained the right to meet in Parliament from time to time, and to tell the king and his ministers what laws they will obey, what taxes they will pay, and how they think that the government should be carried on.

5. Simon did not live much longer. Prince Edward escaped, and with the help of the barons who were discontented with De Montfort, he raised a large army. With this he suddenly attacked De Montfort at Evesham (August, 1265), and after a short combat the Earl's army was overpowered, and he himself was killed. Henry III. was restored to the throne, and died peaceably about seven years afterwards.

6. His son, Edward I., who succeeded him, showed himself to be a great and wise king. He thought that the king should be strong, and should have the power of carrying on the government as he thought best; but

he was anxious also to govern lawfully, and solemnly agreed to keep the Great Charter which John had granted. Under him, De Montfort's idea of calling together representatives of the people to share in the government was fully established as the custom of the realm.

7. At first, however, the Parliament had no fixed shape. Sometimes Edward summoned only the barons, sometimes the traders or the landowners of the kingdom, to give him counsel according to the kind of advice or help he wanted. But in 1295 began the regular Parliament that governs our country to-day. There were the barons, with the higher clergymen, who sat together in the Upper House, and two representatives chosen by the landowners of each county, and two by the citizens of every large town, who sat in a separate chamber. But though Parliament had thus grown up, it had as yet but little power apart from the king.

LESSON XVII.

WARS WITH THE WELSH AND SCOTS.

1. With the help of the Parliament, which he had done so much to establish, Edward I. made several good laws. One of them was intended to make all Englishmen able to use weapons of war, so as to be ready to defend their country against foreign enemies. It was ordered that all men should keep arms and know how to use them. The rich men were to have long lances

and swords and steel armour, so as to be able to act as horse-soldiers. The poorer men were to have bows and arrows, and on all holidays they were to practise shooting with them at "butts" or targets. As there were no paid soldiers, who made fighting their regular trade, it was necessary that all men should be able to fight for the king when the country was at war.

2. There was a good deal of fighting in Edward I.'s time. He himself wanted chiefly to make the government good, and the nation orderly and obedient to the law. He thought he could do this better if the whole island of Britain acknowledged his sway. But in Wales there were many people who had never submitted to an English king at all. We saw that the Britons or Welsh had fled from other parts of the country as the English and Saxons came on, and had taken refuge in the mountains of Wales. Their descendants remained there all through the times of the West-Saxon, the Danish, and the Norman kings.

3. They were a wild people and turbulent neighbours, and Edward determined to bring the country under English laws, and divide it into counties like England. The princes of North Wales had acknowledged the English king as their superior, but they did not pay much attention to his commands. Edward determined to make them obey his government. He marched an army against Llewelyn, the Prince of Wales, and several battles were fought in the wild hill country round Mount Snowdon. The Welsh were entirely defeated, and Llewelyn and his brother David

killed. There was now no Prince of Wales, so the king gave the title to his little son Edward. All Wales became included in the kingdom of England, and ever since that time the eldest son of a King or Queen of England has been called the Prince of Wales.

4. After Wales was conquered, Edward was occupied with the affairs of Scotland. Till now the king of the English had never attempted to take part in the government of the Scotch. But the two kingdoms were very closely bound together. The inhabitants of the south of Scotland, which had been granted to the King of Scots by the English kings before the Norman Conquest, were English; and at the Norman Conquest many Norman nobles, who looked upon William the Conqueror as their lord, settled in Scotland. The Scotch kings acknowledged the King of England to be their superior, and did homage to him when they came to the throne. So that when the sudden death of the Scotch King Alexander and his daughter had left the throne vacant, and the nobles disputed as to who should be King of Scotland, it seemed only right that Edward I. should be called upon to decide the matter.

5. Edward, after hearing all that the various competitors had to say, decided that a nobleman called John Baliol had the best right to the throne, because he was most closely related to the last king. Baliol was crowned king in 1292, and did homage to Edward as his superior. But Edward was not satisfied with having the lordship over Scotland in name, as other English kings had been. He would have liked to make English law prevail in Scotland just as he did in Wales.

PRAYER OF THE SCOTS BEFORE THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN, A.D. 1314.

To this the Scots would not submit, and they would not allow their new king to yield to Edward or to submit his judgments to Edward's decision. Then Edward deposed Baliol, and set up an English nobleman as governor of Scotland.

6. But the Scots would not be deprived of their freedom. They rose against the English governor, and fought hard under a brave knight called William Wallace. When Wallace was defeated by Edward and put to death, the Scots found a leader in Robert Bruce, who was the grandson of one of the competitors against Baliol for the Scottish crown. Bruce got himself crowned King of Scotland. Edward marched northwards with a great army, in order to conquer the Scots completely; but before he could reach the country he died near Carlisle, in 1307, and was succeeded by his son, Edward II.

7. The Scots still continued to fight bravely for their freedom. Bruce was often defeated by the English generals, but he still carried on the war. At last, in 1314, at a place called Bannockburn, he totally defeated a great army of the English, which was led by the king himself. After this, the English gave up the idea of trying to rule Scotland. There were constant wars between the two countries for a long time afterwards, in which the Scots bravely held their own, though they were much poorer and less numerous than their enemies; and at length the English kings acknowledged that Scotland was a separate and independent nation.

8. Perhaps the Scots might have found it harder to

gain their liberty if Edward II. had been at all like his father. But he was a weak and worthless young man. He governed badly, and squandered the money he got from the people on his friends and favourites. This led to disputes with the Parliament and the barons. Edward's chief favourite was seized and beheaded; and then the king collected a force and had the leader of the barons, Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, put to death. At last, Edward's wife, Queen Isabella, sided with the barons. She brought over a body of troops from France to fight against her husband, and Edward was seized and cruelly murdered in 1327.

LESSON XVIII.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH FRANCE.

1. Under his son, Edward III. (1327—1377), the English fought on against the Scots for a few years longer. But the Scots were determined to retain their liberty and not to become subject to an English king again. And soon the king's attention was taken up by a long war with France.

2. The enmity between the English and the French had been growing greater and greater. There had been many wars since John was driven out of Normandy. The English kings still hoped to win it back, while the French wished to drive the English out of the lands they still kept in the south of France. Besides, the French had helped the Scots against the

English, and the French king was always trying to make the Flemings, or people of Flanders, subject to him, and to prevent their trade with the English. The Flemings had many rich and populous towns, full of industrious manufacturers, who bought the wool of England to make it up into cloth, just as England now buys raw cotton in America and India, and wool in Australia, for the factories of her great northern towns. It was, therefore, necessary for the English to protect the Flemings, and not to allow the French to put an end to the trade with them.

3. But besides this Edward III. thought that he had a right to the French throne, because his mother Isabella was the sister to the last King of France. The French said that, according to their law, Edward had no such right, and at any rate did not want to be governed by foreign rulers, yet the English persisted for upwards of a hundred years in trying to make good their claim. There was not always war between the two countries; but whenever the English kings felt themselves strong enough, they led armies over to France to try and bring it under their power.

4. These wars brought great misery on the French. Their armies were overthrown in battle by the English, and their kings were no longer able to govern the country properly. The laws which the former kings had made were neglected, and the country was full of disorder and confusion. The English armies, wherever they came, burnt the villages, destroyed the crops and the vines, and plundered the towns.

5. The unhappy peasants could not be sure of reap-

ing what they had sown, so that much of the ground fell out of cultivation; and for a long time after the war was over the poor people of France were in a very miserable condition.

6. But the war was bad for England too, as such wars of aggression almost always are, even if the aggressor is successful. The English nobles ceased to think about the improvement of the laws and condition of their country, but grew quarrelsome, heartless, and bloodthirsty. It was the fashion to treat all other noblemen and gentlemen, even if they were enemies, with great politeness and generosity. But the English were terribly brutal towards the common people among the French. They plundered and ill-used them shamefully. So when war was over they came back to England in a restless and brutal mood, and adopted the same line of behaviour at home. They despised trade and labour, and all the ways of peace. They oppressed the poor, and were eager to join in any project that would promise bloodshed and plunder.

7. The English won some splendid victories, and showed themselves to be very brave and skilful in fighting. Shortly after the beginning of the war, they defeated the French in a great sea-fight off the coast of Flanders. In 1346 Edward III. and his brave son Edward, called the Black Prince, with a small army of English, overthrew a much greater force of the French at Crecy, and soon afterwards took Calais. In 1356 the Black Prince defeated an army five times as numerous as his own at Poitiers, when the French king John was made prisoner and

brought to England. Four years afterwards peace was made for a time, and it was agreed that a large part of the west and south-west of France should remain in the hands of the English. But in the later years of Edward III.'s reign the Black Prince was engaged in a foolish war in Spain, in the course of which he died; and the king was occupied with troubles at home. So the French won back some of the English conquests almost as soon as they were made.

AN ENGLISH ARCHER.

8. The victories which the English had gained were due chiefly to the excellence of their foot-soldiers. The French nobles and knights, who were clothed in complete armour of steel, and who fought on horseback, were quite equal to those of the English. But the French had no soldiers as good as the English archers. These men were taken from the small landholders of the country, and the

citizens of the towns, who had become skilful in the use of the bow by constant practice since their boyhood. They could shoot with great bows which no other people were strong enough to bend; and they shot so quickly, and with such true aim, that the French horsemen were thrown into confusion before they could get near enough to use their lances and swords.

LESSON XIX

THE RISING OF THE PEASANTS.

1. The evils which the French war had brought on England began to be seen in the later years of Edward III. and in the reign of his successor, Richard II. (1377—1399), the young son of the Black Prince. The expenses of the war were very large, and these had to be paid by heavy taxes raised from the people. This caused a great deal of discontent amongst the townspeople and the labourers of the country.

2. These latter were badly off in other ways. Most of the land was tilled by *villeins*, as they were called, or peasants, who had a cottage to live in and a small plot of land to cultivate for themselves and their families. The villeins sometimes paid rent to the lord who owned the land, but more often they did a certain amount of work for him every year instead. In the earlier times their lords had generally treated them well, and they had not been badly off, though they

often had to work very hard to get food enough for themselves and their families.

3. But in the middle of the fourteenth century a great plague, which was called the "Black Death," swept over England. There have been several such plagues, but never one which caused so great a loss of life as this. In some towns it is said that four out of every five people died from it; and in many parts of England it is thought that nearly half the people perished. The plague raged with especial violence among the labourers, because they lived in damp and smoky cottages, without other floors than the bare ground, and without chimneys or windows, and because of the poor and scanty food they ate.

4. So many peasants died, that there were not enough to cultivate the fields; food grew scarce and dear, and the peasants demanded better treatment. But the nobles and gentlemen who were their landlords tried to get as much money in rent, and as much work as formerly, from those that remained, and would pay for hired labourers no more than of old.

5. The peasants were indignant, too, as were many other people, at the conduct of the clergy. Many of the priests and monks had become careless of their duties, and thought only of living comfortably, and getting money for themselves and the Pope. An Oxford clergyman named John Wyclif put himself at the head of those who were discontented with them on this account. He told people that as the Pope had done so little for England he had no right to get the money of Englishmen for himself and his

Italian friends. And as the regular clergy did little for the poor, he sent some of his followers, who were called "poor priests," about the country to preach to the people, and do works of charity, as it had been intended that the monks and friars should do in old times.

6. Wyclif himself only tried to improve the state of things by getting men to do their duty well, and to lead a better and really religious life. But some of his followers, when they saw how little good the nobles and gentlemen did in return for the wealth they had, and the easy lives they led, told the people that it would be better if their property was taken from them and given to the poor hard-working men who tilled the ground. There were a couple of verses which were often repeated at this time:—

> "When Adam delved, and Eve span,
> Who was then the gentleman?"

Delve is an old word meaning to dig, and the verses meant that in the old times of the world there had been none who lived in idleness, but all men alike had to work hard at common labour.

7. So the peasants were angry with the Government, the higher clergy, and the gentlemen. Besides, in 1381 a new and most unjust tax was imposed, and the officers who had to collect it were rough and unfeeling to the poor. Then the peasants would bear it no longer, and broke out into wild revolt all over Kent and the south-eastern counties. The tax-gatherers were murdered, and the houses of the gentlemen attacked and plundered.

8. A great body of the men of Kent and Essex, under a leader named Wat Tyler, marched to London in order to compel the king and his Ministers to grant their demands, the chief of which were that the heavy taxes should be taken off and villeinage done away with, so that the labourers should no longer have to work for their lords, but should pay a fixed rent for their land instead. The southern part of London fell into their hands, and the Archbishop of Canterbury was put to death by them. But the young king, Richard II., met the rebels boldly. Wat Tyler, was killed by Walworth, the Mayor of London, and Richard, turning to his followers, told them that he would be their leader in the future. He promised to amend their grievances, and induced many of them to disperse. The remainder were attacked by the Londoners and driven out of the city. The royal armies soon put down the rebellion elsewhere, and great cruelties were inflicted on the revolted peasants. Richard forgot his promise, and did little to make their condition better. But villeinage gradually passed away after this time, and all the peasants came to be free labourers working for wages, or tenants who paid rent in money for the lands they tilled.

9. Richard II.'s reign was not a prosperous or successful one. He was engaged in frequent disputes with his uncles, the sons of Edward III., who wanted to get the government into their own hands. He was also on bad terms with the Parliament and the great barons, because he tried to govern the country, not by the advice of Parliament, but by his own power.

At last, in 1399, he quarrelled with his cousin Henry, the son of John, Duke of Lancaster, and grandson of Edward III., and banished him from England. Henry came back with an army, and, being supported by some of the most powerful barons, he took Richard prisoner. Parliament deposed Richard because of his bad government. Then Henry himself was acknowledged king as Henry IV.

LESSON XX.

THE END OF THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

1. Henry IV. (1399—1413) had many troubles to contend against in his reign. A great family of nobles in the north called the Percies, who had helped Henry to gain the crown, rebelled against him, and were aided by the Welsh. Henry put them down, but not until a great battle had been fought with them. The Lollards, as the followers of Wyclif were called, still went on preaching against the abuses in the Church and in the State. Severe laws were passed against them condemning them to be burnt as heretics. But the peasants and working people continued to be restless and discontented with the nobles and land-owners.

2. Henry IV.'s son, Henry V. (1413—1422), was able to carry on the war against France once more. In 1415, with 9,000 English, he won the great battle of Agincourt over 60,000 French, and inflicted on them

a worse defeat than those of Crecy and Poitiers. His conquests were even greater than those of Edward III. had been. The French were at this time still less united than they had been before, and were unable to prevent the greater part of their country falling into the hands of their enemies. After five years of fighting it was agreed that Henry should marry Catherine, the daughter of the French king, Charles VI., and when Charles died should succeed him as king of France.

3. But in 1422 Henry V. died, leaving a young son also named Henry, who was only a few months old. Henry VI. (1422—1461) was crowned king of France as the heir to his grandfather, Charles VI., and his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, governed in his name. The French refused to submit to him, but the English won several victories, and kept many of the strong towns in their hands. However, the French people were becoming more and more resolved that they would not have the English to rule over them.

4. There was a young peasant girl named Jeanne d'Arc, or Joan of Arc, living at a little village in eastern France, whose heart had been moved with pity at the sufferings of the poor people of her country. She thought of these things so much that at length it seemed to her that God had laid it upon her to deliver the land from the invaders. She got Prince Charles, the son of the French king, to listen to her words; and at length, clothed in armour and mounted on a white horse, she was put at the head of a French army. To the French soldiers it seemed that she was

JOAN OF ARC WOUNDED BEFORE PARIS.

an angel sent from heaven to lead them on to victory. So they fought with new hope, and Joan met with one success after another, till at length she was able to march with Charles to Rheims, and see him crowned King of France.

5. Soon after this Joan was taken prisoner by the English, and cruelly burnt to death; for if the French thought her an angel the English looked upon her as a witch. But this deed could not prevent the completion of the work which the maid had begun. For now the whole French people, the peasants as well as the nobles, were striving to drive out the English, and to put an end to the strife and misery they had caused. And so they gradually won back the provinces which the English had conquered, first Normandy and the northern districts, and then the south-western ones. At last, thirty years after the death of Henry V., nothing was left of all the English possessions in France but the town of Calais. This the English managed to keep in their hands for about a hundred years longer.

LESSON XXI.

THE WARS OF THE ROSES.

1. While the English were fighting in France the government at home grew worse and worse; and this was one of the reasons why they were so unsuccessful. While the king was a child, the country was in confusion, owing to the quarrels between

two of his uncles. When he grew older, he was very much under the influence of his wife, a Frenchwoman, named Margaret of Anjou. The great nobles disliked Margaret and her ministers, because they wanted to have more share in the government themselves; and the people blamed them for the loss of the English conquests in France.

2. The discontent grew so bitter that at last, in 1450, there was a great insurrection. Since Richard had been deposed men had grown accustomed to the plan of changing the king if he could not rule, and they began to think of changing the king again. So about the same time Richard, Duke of York, began to scheme how he might get a share in the government. This Duke of York was descended, like Henry, from one of the sons of Edward III., and many people thought he had a better title to the crown than Henry VI.

3. At first he only tried to take the principal part in the management of the government, and to get it out of the hands of the queen and her ministers. In 1453 Henry VI. became mad, and York was made protector, or chief governor, of the kingdom; but in 1455 the king recovered, and the queen's party regained its influence. Then a civil war broke out between the Yorkists, or followers of the Duke of York, and the Lancastrians, as the adherents of the king and queen were called. The Yorkists adopted a white rose as their badge, and the Lancastrians a red one; so that the struggles between them became known as the Wars of the Roses.

4. These wars lasted, with some intervals of peace,

for nearly thirty years. They were fought chiefly by the great nobles, who were now fewer in number than they had been in former times, but much more powerful. Most of the people of England did not care very much which side was successful, but were quite content to let the great lords and their followers, who often plundered and ill-treated less powerful people, fight the matter out. On the whole, they rather preferred the Yorkists, because they thought that they might govern more vigorously and keep order better than Henry VI. had done.

5. In 1460 Richard of York was defeated and killed by the queen's army at Wakefield; but the following year his son Edward completely defeated the Lancastrians in a great battle at Towton, and, marching to London, was accepted by Parliament as king. The Lancastrians held out for some time longer, assisted by the barons of the north; but they were defeated in battle after battle, and at length compelled to give up the struggle.

6. But Edward IV. (1461—1483) found no security upon his throne. He offended some of his supporters by his marriage with a lady named Elizabeth Woodville, the widow of a Lancastrian gentleman. He quarrelled with the Earl of Warwick, the most powerful of all the nobles, and the head of the greatest family in England. So powerful was Warwick that he was able to drive Edward from the kingdom, and to restore Henry VI. But Edward IV. returned, and defeated Warwick and the Lancastrians at Barnet. Warwick was killed, and the hopes of the Lancastrians

were for a time at an end. Henry VI. again fell into the hands of the Yorkists, and soon afterwards his troubled life came to a close in the Tower of London.

7. Then, for the rest of his reign, Edward was able to rule unopposed. He did not govern quite in the way that an English king is supposed to do. He did not trouble to get the consent of Parliament to his acts, and often took money from people in unlawful ways. But his subjects accepted his rule because, at any rate, he was strong enough to keep down the barons and to prevent civil war from breaking out.

8. When he died, his little son Edward V. came to the throne. But Edward V.'s reign did not last long. His uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the brother of Edward IV., was made Protector by the help of some of the great nobles. But Richard was not satisfied with this, and determined to make himself king. He put to death the queen's relations, who guarded the interests of the young king and his brother. Then he got Edward V. and his brother Richard into his hands, and had them secretly murdered. It was not till long afterwards that people knew exactly what had become of them; but even before it was known that they were dead, Richard had made himself king.

9. His reign was short and troubled. He was on bad terms with the great nobles, whose power he tried to keep down, and he was disliked because of the plots and murders by which he had gained the throne.

10. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was descended from John of Gaunt, now that Henry VI. was dead, was the leader of the Lancastrian line. He

landed in England with an army. Richard marched against him with such troops as he could collect, and the two armies met at Bosworth, in Leicestershire. In the middle of the battle, Lord Stanley, who commanded a large part of the king's army, deserted to his rival. Richard was completely defeated, and died in the battle, fighting bravely to the last. Then Henry Tudor was acknowledged as king without further opposition.

LESSON XXII.

THE NEW MONARCHY.

1. Henry VII. (1485—1509) married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., hoping thus to gain over the Yorkists. The Lancastrians were of course glad to see him on the throne, because he was the head of their party. Besides, most people in England were ready to welcome a king who would put an end to the disorders of the past years.

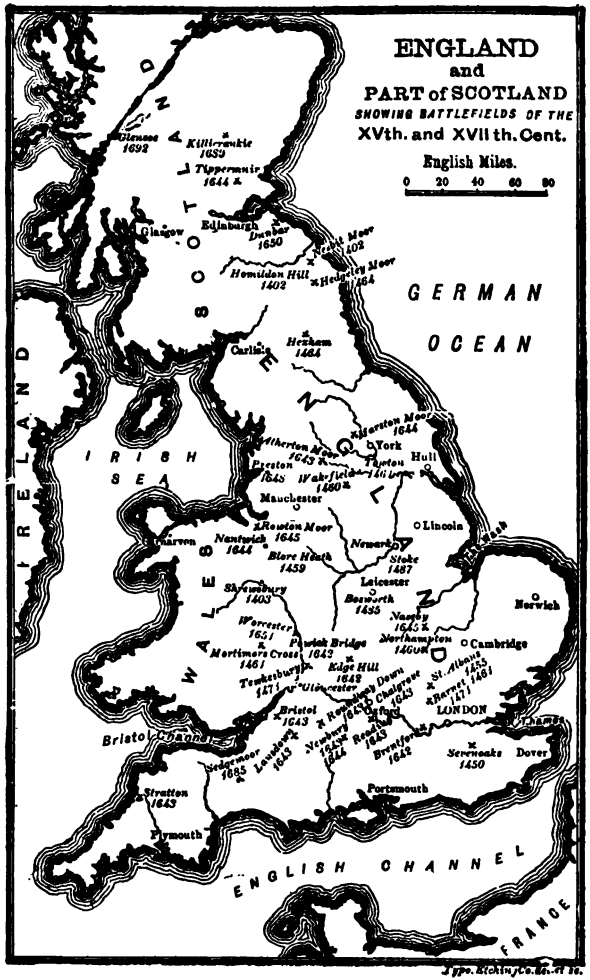
2. At first Henry VII. was disturbed by plots and rebellions on the part of some of the Yorkists, who would not submit to him quietly. They had no prince left to fight for. But two pretenders, called Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, were in turn put forward as being the rightful heir to Edward IV. But Henry was able to put down their attempts without much difficulty.

3. Henry VII. saw that if he was to reign securely, and keep the land at peace, the great noblemen must

be made obedient to the law. They used to keep in their pay great bands of servants, clothed in their liveries like soldiers in uniform, and the men were trained like soldiers, and were ready to fight for their masters against anybody. Henry put down these private armies; and as the nobles were so strong that the ordinary law-courts could not compel them to obey the law, Henry founded a special court to judge them, which sat in the Star Chamber at Westminster, and consisted of the king's most powerful councillors and ministers.

4. Thus the great barons became less powerful. Many of them had perished during the conflict of the civil wars, and many of them had forfeited their lands to the Crown in the course of the struggle. Besides, war now began to be carried on by means of firearms —guns and cannons—and this made it more difficult for the nobles to oppose the king. Their horses and their armour no longer made them irresistible. In the days, too, when men fought chiefly with spears, and bows and arrows, any noble could raise an army. But only trained soldiers could use firearms properly; and the cannon were so expensive that only the king could afford to buy them.

5. It was because he knew that money made him powerful, and enabled him to maintain his throne in security, that Henry VII. was so anxious to gain it. He was not more particular than Edward IV. had been in the means he used for this purpose. He sent unscrupulous agents about the country to fine men for pretended transgressions of the laws, and to sell


ENGLAND
and
PART of SCOTLAND
SHOWING BATTLEFIELDS OF THE
XVth. and XVIIth. Cent.
English Miles.
0 20 40 60 80
GERMAN
OCEAN
IRISH
SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FRANCE
Bristol Channel
Killiecrankie 1689
Tippermuir 1644
Glasgow
Edinburgh
Dunbar 1650
Homildon Hill 1402
Hedgeley Moor 1464
Carlisle
Hexham 1464
Alderton Moor 1644
York
Hull
Preston 1648
Wakefield 1460
Manchester
Rowton Moor
Lincoln
Nantwich 1644
Newark
Blore Heath 1459
Stoke 1487
Shrewsbury 1403
Leicester
Bosworth 1485
Norwich
Worcester 1651
Powick Bridge 1642
Northampton 1460
Cambridge
Mortimer's Cross 1461
Edge Hill 1642
St. Albans 1455
Tewkesbury 1471
Chalgrove 1643
Barnet 1471
Bristol 1643
Newbury 1643
Reading 1643
LONDON
Thames
Brentford 1642
Sevenoaks 1450
Dover
Portsmouth
Stratton 1643
Plymouth

them pardons at heavy prices for any trifling offences they might have committed. Rich people were forced to give money to the king. They were supposed to lend the money; but they knew well enough that they were not likely to get it back again. By such means, and by taking care not to engage in war, Henry amassed enormous wealth, and became the richest king in Christendom.

6. In spite of his covetousness he was not unpopular with the great body of his subjects, for his extortion was felt chiefly by the great nobles. Now that these had become so much weakened, there was no one to oppose the king as there had been in earlier times; for the men of the towns and the small landowners did not care to take very much share in the government, and wanted only to be left alone to attend to their business. And so it came about that the Tudor sovereigns had much more power than any of the kings who had reigned in England since Edward I.

LESSON XXIII.

THE NEW WORLD.

1. It was in the early part of Henry VII.'s reign that the English first got to know something about the vast continent of America, where there now live a greater number of Englishmen than are to be found in England itself.

2. America is separated from Europe by the whole

width of the great Atlantic Ocean. In the former ages of the world the Europeans had not ventured to sail out into the Atlantic to find what land lay on the other side of it. But while the English were

CAXTON AT HIS PRINTING PRESS.

fighting with one another in the Wars of the Roses, the people who lived on the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea were trying hard to find a short way to get to the rich countries of Southern Asia and the East Indies. They sailed right down the coast of Africa, and discovered the passage round the Cape of Good Hope into the Indian Ocean.

3. But it occurred to an Italian, named Christopher Columbus, that, as the earth was round, it might be possible to get to India by travelling westward across the Atlantic Ocean. It was a long time before he was able to carry out this idea; but at length, in the year 1492, the Queen of Spain lent him some ships, and he set out on his voyage of discovery. He did not get to India, but he reached the islands off the coast of America which we now call the West Indies. Other Italians and Spaniards followed him, and soon the American continent—the New World, as it was called—became well known to the people of Europe. The English did not take so much interest in it at first as the Spaniards did; but soon they too sent out ships to explore the new countries, and began to turn their thoughts to the trade and the adventures they offered.

4. There was another discovery made about this time which was even more important than the finding of the New World. This was the invention of Printing, which was first made by a German named Gutenburg, and brought into England by William Caxton in the reign of Edward IV. Before this time all books had to be copied out by hand, which took a long while to do, and made them very costly, so that few people could afford to buy them. But after printing was invented, books became much cheaper, so that everybody could read for themselves.

LESSON XXIV.

THE NEW RELIGION.

1. Henry VIII. (1509—1547) was a young man when he came to the throne, active and ambitious, and anxious to gain glory in war. France and Spain were then the two most powerful nations in Europe. Henry did not wish either of those countries to become too strong, so that he sided with each of them by turns against the other. In this way, in a few years, he got rid of most of the money which his father, Henry VII., had saved.

2. The greatest success in war during Henry's reign was won against the Scots. Though the English had long given up all idea of ruling Scotland, there were frequent wars between the people of the two countries. In 1513 the King of Scotland, James IV., marched into England with a large army. He was met by the English, under the Earl of Surrey, at Flodden, in Northumberland, and there a great battle was fought. The Scots were completely defeated, and their king himself, with the bravest of their nobles, left dead on the battle-field.

3. Henry left the management of the country a good deal in the hands of his minister, Cardinal Wolsey. Wolsey was the son of a butcher at Ipswich, but he rose to be the greatest man in England, after the king. He was a skilful governor, and encouraged learning and learned men. He was anxious to keep England friendly

with the Pope, and many people thought he was trying to become Pope himself some day.

4. But a time came when neither the English people nor the king cared to admit the Pope's authority any longer. We saw that as long ago as the reign of Henry II. difficulties arose because the Churchmen would not obey the same laws as the rest of the people, and had special law courts of their own. This was very offensive to most people in England.

5. The privileges and powers of the clergy would not have been objected to so much if they had shown themselves worthy to possess them. But men complained greatly of the conduct of the monks and priests. In the monasteries they often lived quite idle and useless lives, thinking only how to pass the time pleasantly. The Popes were now nearly always Italians, and they only thought of England as a place from which money might be got to supply their needs. They were always wanting money; for at this time the Popes and the higher clergy were frivolous and self-indulgent, spending a great deal of the wealth which was given them by the people in luxuries for themselves.

6. After the invention of printing, the Bible was read much more than before; and many men began to doubt whether the Popes and the Roman Catholic priests were really teaching the religion that was in the Scriptures. A German friar, named Martin Luther, urged the people, as Wyclif had done before, not to pay money to the Pope, or to think that any good could be done by making pilgrimages and kneeling before images, but to try and become better Chris-

tians by living worthier lives. At a great council of the princes and rulers of Germany, held in 1529, many of the followers of Luther raised their voices to "protest" against the conduct of those who supported the Pope. Hence they came to be called Protestants, or sometimes Reformers, because they wanted to reform or amend the condition of the Church.

7. Henry VIII. had married Catherine of Aragon, a daughter of the King of Spain, with whom he had lived happily for some years. But at length he grew tired of her, and became anxious to marry another lady, named Anne Boleyn. The Pope was supposed to have the right of deciding about all matters of this kind. Henry, by Wolsey's advice, tried to get the Pope to declare that Catherine was not his legal wife. This the Pope would not do, for his conscience told him that it was wrong. But he did not like to offend the King of England, by refusing his request, and so he found means to delay the settlement of the matter as long as possible, hoping perhaps that King Henry would think better of his determination.

8. Henry was determined to carry out his wishes. Wolsey said of him that he was a prince who would endanger the half of his kingdom rather than miss anything he had set his mind on. When he found that no help was to be got from the Pope, he resolved to cast off the authority of the Roman Church altogether. He dismissed Wolsey from his offices, and deprived him of his great wealth and influence. "Had I served God," said the great minister, as he lay dying broken-hearted in Leicester

HENRY VIII.

Abbey, "as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my old age."

9. Then Henry got the Parliament to make a number of laws which did away with the power of the Pope in England. Both the clergy and the people were forbidden to pay money to the Pope, or to carry out his orders; and the king was declared to have the same power over the clergy as the Pope had possessed formerly. Then, when the Pope's authority in England was abolished, Henry married Anne Boleyn.

10. Those who could not approve these acts were treated with great cruelty. There was a very wise and good man, named Sir Thomas More, the Chancellor, or chief law-officer, of the kingdom. When the king called upon him to say that he approved what had been done to Catherine and Anne Boleyn, More would not say that he thought it right. Henry would bear no opposition, and More, with many others, was put to death.

11. Henry appointed Thomas Cromwell his chief minister after the fall of Wolsey. Cromwell sent persons to visit the monasteries and inquire into their condition. It was found that many of them were badly managed, and laws were made to do away with them and give their wealth to the king. The monks were driven out of them, and the beautiful buildings were left empty and desolate. Some of their estates were given to found colleges and schools, but vast portions were given to the king's courtiers, who thus became great landowners, and the founders of powerful families. The very poor people in the country

districts were discontented at these things, because at any rate the monasteries had been places where men who had no homes could always be sure of getting food and a night's lodging; but, on the whole, people were not sorry to see the monasteries done away with, because they thought the monks had lived idly and uselessly.

LESSON XXV.

THE PROTESTANTS.

1. Henry VIII. grew worse in his actions as he grew older. He was soon tired of Anne Boleyn, and had her beheaded; and then he married four other wives, one after another, one of whom he put away, as he had done Catherine of Aragon, and another was put to death.

2. Though he had thrown off the authority of the Pope, he did not wish to make any great changes in religion, but would have liked the old faith to remain the same as before. This was the feeling of many people in England, who were quite content to allow the old state of things to continue, with the king as Head of the Church in place of the Pope.

3. But there were some who agreed with the German Protestants, and would have liked much greater changes. They thought the old religion was not plain and simple enough, and that the priests had too much authority in it. They did not like the Latin prayers

and the costly dresses in the church-services, and thought that in many things the teaching of the priests was wrong. To them it seemed the chief thing for all men to pray to God and to read the Bible for themselves, and to think and act precisely as the Bible seemed to their own judgment to direct them.

4. Cromwell himself thought in this way, and tried to make Henry friendly with the German Protestant princes. For this purpose he got the king to marry a German princess named Anne of Cleves. But Henry did not like her, and in his anger he allowed the enemies of Cromwell to bring him to trial, and consented to have him executed.

5. Henry had his own opinions in these religious questions, and he foolishly thought that as he was Head of the Church he would make all his subjects think exactly as he did. He imprisoned and put to death those who thought that the Pope ought to be Head of the Church, and he was equally severe towards the Protestants. He drew up a set of rules which could not satisfy either party; but people were tortured and burnt if they did not obey them. Yet all this cruel treatment did not lessen the number of Protestants; and in fact, at the end of Henry's life many of his chief councillors were Protestants, though they were too much afraid of the king to confess their faith openly.

6. But when Henry VIII. died in 1547, leaving a young son, Edward VI. (1547—1553), the Protestants concealed their thoughts no longer. Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, the uncle of the young king, governed in his name. Somerset was a Protestant, and

he, in company with Cranmer, whom Henry VIII. had made Archbishop of Canterbury, made many changes in the Church. Much of the old service was done away with, and a new Prayer Book drawn up. Formerly the Prayer Book had been written in Latin, so that only the clergy could understand it. In Somerset's and Cranmer's book the prayers were in English, so that they could be read and understood by the people.

7. Somerset meant to do good in his government, both in religious matters and in affairs of State. But he was unsuccessful in almost everything he undertook, for he acted hastily and often without considering what the end of his actions would be.

8. He thought that it would be a good thing if England and Scotland were united, so that there might be no more wars between the two countries. The last King of Scotland, James V., died shortly before the close of Henry VIII.'s reign, leaving as heiress to the crown a little daughter, Mary, who was always called the Queen of Scots. Somerset tried to get the Scotch lords to marry their young queen to Edward VI. There were many people in Scotland favourable to this, and the matter might have been quietly arranged. But Somerset would not wait until it could be settled peaceably, and marched into Scotland with an English army. He won a great victory at Pinkie, near Edinburgh; but the strife only made matters worse. Even the Scots, who had been favourable to the plan before, became hostile to it now. So they sent their queen into France, and married her to the son of the French king there.

9. Somerset was equally unsuccessful in his management of affairs at home. He had to contend with great difficulties owing to the state of the country. After the time of Henry VII. the wool manufactures of Flanders

THE PUNISHMENT OF THE STOCKS.

became greater than ever, and a larger amount of English wool was required by them. Many of the landlords therefore turned their corn-fields into grass lands for grazing sheep, in order that they might sell the wool in Flanders. It does not require nearly so many people to watch sheep and cattle as it does to grow corn; so that many labourers were thrown out of employment,

and not being able to find honest work, became beggars or thieves, and wandered about the country. Very severe laws were passed against these vagrants. They might be punished by whipping or might be put in the stocks, a strong wooden frame, with holes, through which the hands and feet of the culprit were placed and so held fast. But these hard laws could not put an end to vagrancy, and there was great discontent throughout the country.

10. Somerset was sorry for the condition of the poor, but he did not succeed in doing much to help them; in fact, he made the discontent greater by being too anxious to make Protestants of those who were still attached to the old religion. At last the people in the eastern counties and in Devonshire broke out in revolt. Somerset did not suppress the rebellion, but the other Lords of the Council, headed by Dudley, Earl of Warwick, acted vigorously. They hired foreign troops and put down the revolt, acting with great cruelty towards the rebels.

11. Somerset had few friends left after this. He had become unpopular with the people because he had put to death his own brother, Lord Thomas Seymour, and because he had been too anxious to gain wealth for himself; and by the nobles he was hated because they thought he sided too much with the poor. So Dudley and his friends overthrew Somerset; and at length got the young king to consent to his execution.

12. For the rest of Edward VI.'s reign the chief power was in the hands of Dudley, now created Duke of Northumberland, and the Protestant Lords of the

Council. They were selfish, tyrannical rulers, caring for little beside their own profit and advancement. Their conduct was such that many people became unfavourable to the Protestant faith, and looked back to the Roman Catholic religion with regret.

13. The king himself was too young to understand how selfish Northumberland was in all his schemes; and, being a sincere Protestant, when he came to die he left the crown to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, who had married Northumberland's son, because she was a Protestant. But the real heiress was Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII., who was a Roman Catholic. The people were tired of the bad rule of the Protestant nobles, and would not support Lady Jane Grey. Mary became queen without any real opposition, and Northumberland was seized and executed. Jane, who was a young girl of seventeen, was sent to the Tower, and soon afterwards she too was put to death.

LESSON XXVI.

THE SPANISH RULE.

1. Queen Mary (1553—1558) was the daughter of Henry VIII.'s Spanish wife, Catherine of Aragon. All her life she had been accustomed to look up to the King of Spain and act by his advice. She had been brought up a Roman Catholic, and had remained steadfast to her religion all through the changes of

Henry VIII.'s and Edward VI.'s reigns. When she came to the throne she thought that it was her duty to make the Church of England Roman Catholic, and bring it under the authority of the Pope once more.

2. Soon after she became queen, Mary married Philip II., the King of Spain. She was very fond of him, and anxious to please him, and to do what was useful for him and his kingdom. The Spanish ambassador in England was her chief adviser, and the things she undertook were done as much to serve the cause of Spain as that of England. This was very displeasing to the English, who did not like to see their country ruled by foreigners, and for the benefit of a foreign nation; and even many of those who were Roman Catholics did not care to see the Pope ruling with full authority in England.

3. Mary was persuaded by the Pope and the Spaniards to compel people by force to belong to the old religion and to acknowledge the Pope; and as many of the Protestants would not, very violent and cruel measures were taken against them. Men were put in prison, tortured, and burnt to death because they would not say they believed in a faith which they thought untrue. Some of the best men in the country perished. Archbishop Cranmer was burnt at Oxford, and with him two other bishops, Ridley and Latimer. They died nobly and courageously, as did many others who suffered in this terrible time.

4. But this persecution did not terrify people into doing as Mary and the Pope wished. On the contrary, it made them hate the religion in the name of

PLACE OF MARTYRDOM OF RIDLEY AND LATIMER AT OXFORD. (*From an Old Print.*)

which these things were done. Many people who would have been content to be Roman Catholics at the beginning of Mary's reign were strong Protestants at its close.

5. There was failure abroad as well as at home in this reign. The Spaniards were at war with the French, so the queen made England the ally of her husband's country and made war on France. Spain gained some advantages, but England nothing. Calais, the last of the possessions of the English kings in France, was captured by the French. It had remained in the hands of the English when they had lost all their other conquests in France, during the reign of Henry VI. The town was not of much use to them; but they were proud to have it, and they felt its loss to be a great national disgrace. The queen felt this too, and died soon afterwards, heart-broken at the failure of all her schemes and efforts.

LESSON XXVII.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

1. Mary was succeeded by her younger sister Elizabeth (1558-1603), the daughter of Henry the Eighth and Anne Boleyn. Her reign was long and eventful, and in the end it proved to be a successful and glorious one for England. But at first she had many difficulties to contend with, which required great skill and prudence on her part to overcome.

2. She took care to make peace with France, and to withdraw from the close alliance which Mary had made with Spain. Both France and Spain were larger nations than England, with greater armies and more numerous populations. There would have been great danger to England if either of them had been at war with her; especially at this time when the army and navy were in a bad condition, and the government had little money in its hands, owing to the mismanagement of Mary and her ministers. So in the early part of her reign Elizabeth was anxious to keep out of the quarrels of foreign countries, while England recovered from the disorders and disputes of the last two reigns.

3. The most difficult matter to settle was the question of religion. Elizabeth herself had been brought up as a Protestant, and she had remained constant in that faith all through the reign of her sister. The greater number of people in England wished to see the authority of the Pope abolished, especially after the events of Mary's time. For now they saw that if England remained a Roman Catholic country it would be likely to come under the influence of foreigners. But, on the other hand, they did not want to depart from the old worship altogether.

4. Elizabeth therefore decided to restore the Protestant worship in the Church of England as it had been in Edward the Sixth's reign. A Prayer-book similar in most respects to that which Cranmer had compiled was ordered to be used in the churches, and the service was to be said in English instead of in Latin. Acts of Parliament were passed which

again abolished the authority of the Pope, and declared the queen to be the Head of the Church of England. Laws also were made to compel all men to worship in the way decreed by the queen and parliament.

5. There were a good many people who were not at all satisfied with these measures. Some of the followers of the German Reformers—Puritans as they now began to be called—thought that too many of the doctrines and customs of the old religion had been left. They would have liked to do away with many of the ceremonies still used in the English worship; and they did not think that the Church of England should be governed by bishops and archbishops, as it was in the Roman Catholic times. Instead of coming to church they often held their services in their own way, in houses or in the open air. They were fined and punished when they were found out; for the tradition of the old Universal Church with one fixed worship was still so strong that statesmen could not yet understand that people must be left to serve God as their own consciences teach them.

6. There was besides a very large number of Roman Catholics left in the country, many of whom became altogether hostile to the government when they found that their religion was to be put down. A great rising took place in the north, headed by some of the leading Catholic noblemen. The rebellion was suppressed without much difficulty, and the leaders were put to death. Great severity was shown towards the Roman Catholics during the rest of Elizabeth's reign. For Elizabeth was always afraid that they would try to get help from

the Papists in Spain or other countries, and make an attempt to drive her from the throne.

7. The person whom many of the Catholics would have liked to put in the place of Elizabeth was Mary Queen of Scots. We have already heard something of her in the reign of Edward the Sixth. She was descended from a sister of Henry the Eighth of England, and she laid claim to the throne of that country as well as her own, saying that Elizabeth was not the lawful queen. About the time that Elizabeth came to the throne of England, Mary's French husband died, and she went back to Scotland to act as queen. She had lived nearly all her life in France, and did not understand the character of the Scotch and the condition of their country. The Reformation had made great progress there, and very many of the people had become Protestants. Mary was a devoted Roman Catholic and she did her best to bring back Scotland to her religion.

8. But she acted with great imprudence. She offended the great nobles by her fondness for foreigners and by a foolish marriage with her cousin, Lord Darnley. Before long Darnley was killed, and Mary married the Earl of Bothwell, a nobleman of very bad character who was thought to have had a good deal to do with Darnley's death. Then a civil war broke out, and Mary was defeated in battle and forced to take refuge in England. She threw herself on Elizabeth's protection, and seemed to expect that the English would restore her to her throne.

9. But Elizabeth put her in prison and kept her there. She did not want to go to war with the Scots

to bring back a queen whom they did not like, and she was afraid to let Mary be at liberty, because she thought that the English Catholics would try to make her Queen of England. In fact, even while Mary was in prison, plots were constantly being made in her

COURTIER OF QUEEN ELIZABETH'S TIME.

favour. At length some Catholic priests from abroad came into England, and got up a conspiracy amongst their fellow-Catholics to kill Elizabeth, so that Mary might come to the throne. Then the unfortunate Queen of Scots was put to death, in 1587, after being in prison for nineteen years. This seems a harsh and

cruel action, but Elizabeth's ministers thought the queen's life could not be safe as long as Mary was alive.

10. In spite of these troubles most people in England were well content under Elizabeth's rule. With the help of the able ministers she chose, she carried on the government well. The country was at peace, and soon became prosperous. Laws were made to punish lazy vagabonds who would not work, but the householders of each parish were ordered to provide for the aged and infirm there. Trade flourished, and all classes in the nation became richer and more comfortable. Men began to take delight in poetry and music, and in stately buildings, and splendour and magnificence of all kinds.

11. The queen kept a splendid court, and was fond of journeying about the country with a brilliant train of attendants from one place to another. This made her popular with the people, who liked seeing her in their midst; and her great nobles entertained her royally with feasts and pageants as she travelled from one castle to another.

12. The dresses of the nobles and ladies were very rich and luxurious. The gentlemen wore a large stiff collar, called a *ruff*, round their necks, and their clothes were padded all over, and covered with jewels. Silk and velvet were the materials of which their suits were made, so that often they were very costly.

LESSON XXVIII.

ENGLAND AND SPAIN.

1. Now that the English had time to rest from civil war and disputes, they began to turn their attention to trading by sea with foreign lands. For some time after America had been discovered, the Spaniards were the only people who got much benefit from it. They had sent out ships and soldiers, and had got the chief West India Islands, and a large part of Central and South America, into their power. And the riches of these lands—gold, and silver, and spices, which they got often by plundering the natives and robbing their towns—they put in great ships called "galleons," and sent off to Spain. So that the King of Spain, the same Philip the Second who had married Mary, became one of the wealthiest monarchs in Europe, and was able to maintain a great army and a powerful fleet of ships of war.

2. There were many bold sailors in England, especially in the western counties, who wanted to have a share in the riches of the countries across the Atlantic. At first they kept away from the Spanish settlements, and tried to find new lands for themselves. One of the English seamen, named Martin Frobisher, explored the islands and channels on the extreme north of North America, and tried to find a passage to Asia that way. But there was nothing to be found except hardship and cold and tempest in those barren regions. So the English sailors made voyages to the richer southern

A GALLEON OF THE SPANISH ARMADA, A.D. 1588.

countries which the Spaniards held. The Spaniards claimed the trade of those lands as their own, and when English ships came there, they sometimes seized the vessels and imprisoned the men. This led to great ill-feeling between the two nations, and the English fleets, when they were strong enough, did not merely trade with the natives but also captured and plundered Spanish ships and settlements.

3. Besides, the Spaniards hated the English because they were Protestants; and the English felt that in injuring the subjects of the King of Spain they were attacking the great Catholic ruler who would have ruined their country if he could.

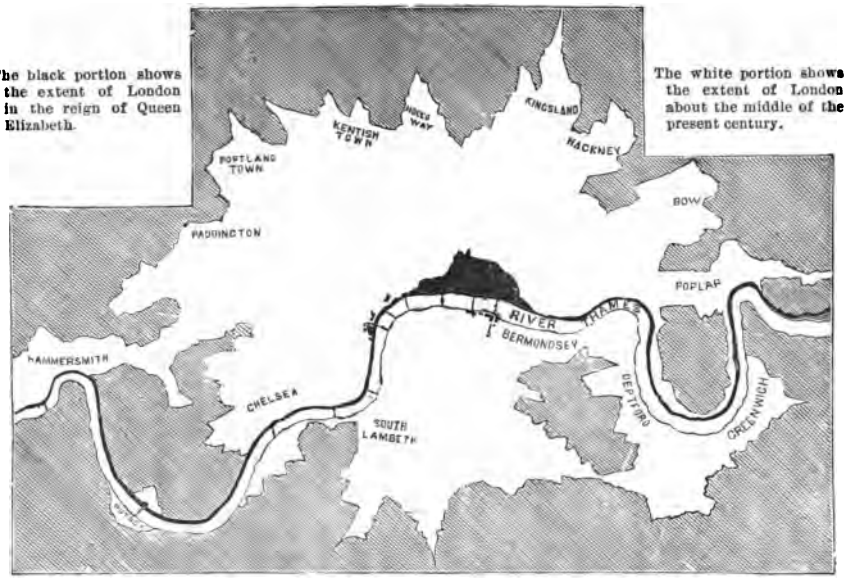
4. So that though the governments of the two nations were at peace, there was really war going on between them in America. Year after year the bold mariners of Plymouth and the other western towns sailed out to America in their little ships, and captured the great vessels of the Spaniards laden with gold and treasure.

5. The most famous of these English sailors was a Devonshire man named Francis Drake. In 1572 he had sailed for the West Indies, landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and crossed it, till he caught sight of the great Pacific Ocean. A few years later, he was able to sail on that sea, the first Englishman who ever did so. He left Plymouth with five ships, the largest of which would now be considered too small for a long voyage, while the smallest was not much bigger than the pleasure-boats of our seaside towns. With these he crossed the Atlantic, passed through the Straits of Magellan, and sailed along the western side of South

America. The Spaniards never expected any enemies in those seas, so that Drake was able to plunder one settlement after another, and to capture a huge vessel laden with gold. Then he turned the head of the one ship that was left him westward, and sailed across the Indian Ocean and round the Cape of Good Hope. He reached England with his ship full of treasure, after having sailed quite round the world.

6. But this and similar expeditions made the Spaniards more indignant than ever. It was plain that there would be war. The English were giving help to Philip's Protestant subjects in the Netherlands who had revolted, and Philip was helping in the plots to overthrow Elizabeth, and set Mary of Scotland on the throne. At last, after the execution of Mary, Philip prepared a great fleet and army, which were to invade and conquer England.

7. In 1588, the great fleet—the Invincible Armada, as the Spaniards called it—sailed for the English Channel. It was to take on board a Spanish army of 20,000 men that was waiting for it in the Netherlands. All the fighting men that England had—Catholics as well as Protestants—gathered to resist the Spaniards when they landed; and the queen encouraged the troops by her bold words and high courage. But the Spanish army never did land; for as they made their way along the Channel, the little English fleet, manned by such skilful seamen as Sir Francis Drake, fought with the great Spanish ships and threw them into confusion. Then a storm arose, and drove their ships northward. Many of them sank at sea;



THE GROWTH OF LONDON.

others tried to make their way back round the coast of Scotland and Ireland, and were cast away on the rocky shores. Thus England was delivered from the Invincible Armada.

8. Philip did not attempt another invasion of England, though during the rest of Queen Elizabeth's reign the Spanish and the English sailors fought wherever they met. The English almost always got the best of it, and became known as among the best sailors in the world. They began to trade with the East Indies, and also formed a settlement in North America, called Virginia, which was the first of the Colonies planted by England in the great region now called the United States.

9. In the later years of her reign Elizabeth had some difficulties with the Parliament. She was angry when Parliament interfered in her Church measures or in foreign questions; and she also offended Parliament by bestowing commercial privileges upon her favourites, which privileges were unfair to the rest of the nation. But she was too wise to quarrel seriously with her Parliaments, and gave way when she saw that they were strongly opposed to her measures.

LESSON XXIX.

THE CROWN AND THE COMMONS.

1. When Elizabeth died leaving no children, the next heir to the crown was James, the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, who had been King of Scotland for several

years. So that at length, after all the strife and warfare between England and Scotland, the crowns of the two countries were united, and one king reigned over both. James I. (1603—1625) and the three kings who came after him are known as the Stuarts, from the name of the founder of their family.

2. Since the Reformation, Parliament had gained great power and influence, and it claimed that no law whatever should be made, nor tax levied, without its consent. These were ancient rights of the English nation, but the kings had grown so strong since the Wars of the Roses, that the courtiers began to think that the powers of Parliament were given to it by the king's pleasure, and that he could disregard Parliament if it pleased him. So the Stuarts tried to govern as much as possible without the advice of Parliament; and were constantly engaged in quarrels and disputes with Parliament and with the people.

3. All through James I.'s reign there were disputes on the subject of religion. The Catholics had greatly decreased in numbers, but the Puritans had become more numerous, and included very many of the merchants and traders throughout the kingdom. They were anxious to have some alteration in the service of the Church, so as to do away with the ceremonies they disliked. But James was very unfavourable to the Puritans. He would allow no alteration in Church matters. He even made an alliance with England's old enemy, the Catholic King of Spain, and caused his son to marry the sister of another Catholic sovereign, the King of France.

4. What made Parliament even more angry were James's attempts to raise money without their consent. Instead of selecting wise and capable ministers, as Elizabeth had done, he was guided by the advice of frivolous young men, whom he chose as his courtiers and favourites. The chief of these was George Villiers, who was created Duke of Buckingham. As Parliament would not give the king money enough to supply the extravagance of these courtiers, he tried to obtain it by imposing illegal taxes. Great corruption prevailed among the king's officers and ministers. One of them, Francis Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, was put on trial by the House of Commons, and found guilty of taking bribes. All this caused much bitterness between the king and Parliament.

5. This grew worse in the reign of James's son, Charles I. (1625—1649). For Charles, acting under the advice of Buckingham, went to war with France, and spent a great deal of money. Then, when the House of Commons would not grant him supplies, he imposed taxes by his own authority, and imprisoned men when they would not pay. In 1628 he succeeded in getting some money from the Commons, but in return they required him to sign a paper they drew up, called the "Petition of Right," which declared it was illegal that taxes should be imposed by the king without the consent of Parliament.

6. Soon after this, Buckingham was murdered, and the king, under the advice of Lord Strafford, the minister who succeeded him, and Laud, the Archbishop of Canterbury, governed worse than ever.

Finding that he could get little from Parliament, he governed altogether without it. For eleven years no Parliament was called together. Money was extorted from men under all sorts of pretences, and the judges whom the king appointed supported him in the unlawful claims he made. John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay "ship money," a tax which the king had demanded for the support of the navy. He was brought to trial, and the judges decided that he must pay. But the trial made him one of the most popular men in the kingdom.

7. The king and Laud resolved to make all the people conform to the strictest worship of the Church. They tried this with the Scots, who had never accepted the English Church Service at all. But the Scots rebelled, and invaded England. Charles could do nothing, and was forced to summon the English Parliament to help him to deal with the Scots. It was called together in April, 1640, but only sat a few weeks, when the members were sent away again. But later on in the year, Charles was once more obliged to call the Parliament together and ask help from it. This famous Parliament assembled in November, 1640, and sat for so long a time, that it became known afterwards as the Long Parliament.

LESSON XXX.

THE GREAT REBELLION.

1. Charles I. soon found that the Parliament, instead of being ready to help him, was determined to put an end to the bad government of the past few years. The Commons called Strafford to account for his conduct. He was tried, found guilty, and at last the king consented to allow him to be executed.

2. Then the Commons drew up a paper called the Grand Remonstrance, in which they complained of the unlawful things Charles had done. In order that there might be no more ministers like Buckingham and Strafford, they asked the king to bind himself to appoint only such ministers as Parliament approved. Further, they asked that certain changes which the Puritans desired should be made in the Church Service. Charles refused to consent to this, and, instead, came down to the House with a body of his guards to arrest Hampden and four other principal members of Parliament. The members managed to avoid being taken, but after this attempt of the king there could be no more peace between the two parties. Soon all England was divided by a great civil war between king and Parliament.

3. On the side of the king were most of the nobility and gentlemen, the bishops, and many of those who wished for no change in the Church. The Commons were supported by most of the merchants and traders, and by all the Puritans and those who desired much

THE BATTLE OF NASEBY, 1645.

alteration in matters of religion. The adherents of the king were to be found chiefly in the northern and western counties, those of the Parliament in the east and south. The Parliament had got the Scots to help them by promising to do away with the bishops, and to make the English Church similar to that form of the Protestant religion which prevailed in Scotland—the Presbyterian.

4. The king had more trained and drilled soldiers in his army, and at first gained some successes; but a Huntingdonshire gentleman, named Oliver Cromwell, collected a body of men who were even better trained than the king's troops. Owing to the steadiness and bravery of these men, and the skill of Cromwell, who showed himself to be a very able general, the Parliament won a great victory at Marston Moor, in Yorkshire. Other victories followed, and at last the king was completely defeated at the battle of Naseby, in Northamptonshire, in 1645. Then he took refuge with the Scots, but in 1647 they gave him up as a prisoner into the hands of the Parliament.

5. Meanwhile, there had been disputes between the Parliament and the Army. The members of Parliament would have liked to compel all the people to conform to the Presbyterian religion, just as Mary had obliged the people to be Roman Catholics, and Elizabeth to belong to the Church of England. But most of the soldiers and officers, with Cromwell at their head, were what were called Independents—that is, they thought that men should gather into Congregations as they thought fit, and that each Congregation should

worship God as it pleased. Only the Roman Catholic worship was to be forbidden.

6. Most of the members of the Parliament had no wish to do much harm to the king, but the Army was indignant at his conduct, especially as they knew that he had secretly urged the Scots to march into England, while he pretended to be trying to make peace with the Puritans; and they determined to bring him to trial. The Parliament was unwilling to do this, but a body of soldiers marched to the House of Commons, and turned out all the members who were thought to be opposed to the trial of the king. Then Charles was tried, condemned, and beheaded in January, 1649.

7. After this event, the son of the late king, Prince Charles, tried to carry on the war with the aid of the Scots and Irish; but Cromwell went to Ireland, and compelled that country to submit, and then marched against the Scots, and defeated them in two great battles. After this the hopes of the Royalists were at an end, and Prince Charles fled across the seas.

8. The Army was now the greatest power left in the country. In 1653 Cromwell turned out the few members of the Long Parliament who were left. Soon afterwards, he was made chief ruler of the country, under the name of Protector; for the officers of the army who supported him would not hear of the name of king. He tried to rule in an orderly way, and to govern with the help of Parliaments; but the Parliaments he called together did nothing that was of any use, and the Army would not allow him to make such regulations as would

have put an end to its authority. The Independents, when they came into power, showed themselves as oppressive as the Stuarts had been. There was great discontent throughout the country, and if it had not been for the support of the army, there would have been a rebellion against Cromwell.

9. But in 1658 the great Protector died. His son, Richard Cromwell, was made his successor; but Richard was no soldier, and the Army would not support him. Then the members of the Long Parliament were assembled again, and the quarrels between them and the Army broke out afresh. All this made men wish to have the old monarchy back; so that when one of the generals, named Monk, declared himself in favour of Prince Charles, he was supported by the greater part of the people. A new Parliament was brought together, Charles was sent for from Holland and proclaimed king, and the old constitution of the country was restored as it had been before the war.

LESSON XXXI.

THE REVOLUTION.

1. The Stuarts had been brought back, because most people in England had grown tired of the violence of the Puritans, and did not wish for the great changes they had made in the way of carrying on the government. So much anger was felt at their conduct that men were quite ready to allow the king

to do as he liked in many things, and to permit the Church of England to be restored, with the same privileges it had possessed in the time of Charles I.

2. But the feeling of loyalty to the king gradually passed away. It was soon seen that Charles II. was not a capable or energetic ruler. He thought quite as much as his father had done of the rights and powers of the crown, and would have liked to have governed by himself without allowing Parliament much authority. If he did not resist Parliament openly, like Charles I., it was only because he was afraid of being driven from the throne; but wherever he could do so without running any danger, he tried to increase the authority of the crown, and to diminish that of the House of Commons. He was very fond of pleasure and luxury of all kinds, and in this he was imitated by many of the nobles and courtiers. The money which the people paid to carry on the government, and to support the army and navy, was spent to supply the king's pleasures. The English were no longer respected by foreign nations, as they had been in the time of Cromwell. They were defeated in a war with the Dutch, who actually sailed up the Thames, and even threatened to attack London.

3. About the same time a terrible sickness, called the Great Plague, fell upon London. Many thousands of people perished from it, and whole streets were left empty, because those who dwelt in them had fled into the country or died of the plague. Then there came a great fire, which burnt down a large part of the city. But this calamity brought about good results in the

end. For the streets of London had been badly built and narrow before; but when they were rebuilt, after the fire, they were made wider and more healthy.

OLD ST. PAUL'S, BURNT IN THE GREAT FIRE, A.D. 1666.

Among the buildings burnt down was the old Cathedral of St. Paul's; the present one was begun by a great architect named Sir Christopher Wren, soon after the fire.

4. When Charles found that he could get no more money from Parliament, he raised it by worse methods.

The greatest sovereign in Europe at this time was Louis XIV., the King of France. The Spaniards had now lost much of their power and importance; and the French king, who ruled over vast dominions, and had a large army, and was moreover a Roman Catholic, seemed to the English as dangerous as Philip II. had seemed in the reign of Elizabeth. They were afraid that he would try to overthrow the Protestant religion, and they would have liked to join with other Protestant countries against him. Charles pretended to be of the same way of thinking, but in reality he and his ministers were being paid large sums of money by the King of France, in order that they might prevent England from going to war. At length the matter became known to Parliament, and very great indignation was felt in England.

5. For people had not forgotten the plots of the Catholics in the time of Elizabeth and James, and were afraid that they would again make similar attempts. It was pretended that a plot of the Catholics had actually been discovered, and many innocent people were put to death on the charge of being concerned in it.

6. Charles' brother, James II. (1685—1688), who succeeded him, was less cautious. He openly confessed that he was a Roman Catholic, and was evidently trying to restore that religion in England. He gave high offices and places in the government to Roman Catholics, though this was against the law, which said that such places should only be given to members of the Church of England. But James II. said that the king had the right to set aside laws by his own power, if he

pleased. He wanted to be able to rule altogether without Parliament; and not being selfishly prudent, as his brother had been, he went so far in his measures that the people awoke to the danger and determined to get rid of him.

7. In 1685 there was a rebellion in the western counties against him, for the purpose of putting on the throne his nephew, the Duke of Monmouth, who was a Protestant. This was put down without much difficulty, and Monmouth was executed, with many of his followers, and many other persons who had had nothing to do with the rebellion. For the king had appointed several new judges, who were ready to condemn people unjustly when they were ordered by him to do so. Three years afterwards the king declared that persons who did not belong to the Church of England, including Catholics, might worship as they pleased. This in itself was doubtless a right thing to allow; but most Englishmen at that time were afraid of the restoration of the old religion, and at any rate they could not permit the king to set aside laws as he pleased. Seven of the bishops who opposed this were put on trial; but the feeling against the king was so strong that the jury who tried them would not allow them to be punished.

8. At length the leading Protestants decided to dethrone James, and put a Protestant in his place. James's daughter, Mary, had married William, Prince of Orange, the chief ruler of Holland, and a grandson of Charles I. William was a brave and vigorous prince, and he was generally considered the head

of the Protestants in Europe, for he had led his countrymen in a great war with Louis XIV., who had tried to conquer Holland and make it Roman Catholic. He was afraid that if James II. continued to be king much longer he would make England Catholic, and would join the French against the Protestants.

9. When, therefore, some of the English Protestant nobles asked William to come over and take the government, he willingly accepted. At the end of 1688 he landed in Devonshire with a powerful army. But there was no fighting, for most people in England were tired of James, and would not stand by him. He fled to France, while William marched quietly to London. Parliament declared that, owing to the bad government of James II., the throne no longer belonged to him. It was therefore conferred on William and Mary, who were to rule together as king and queen. No king in future could lay claim to such powers as the Stuarts had tried to acquire; for it was seen that Parliament was able to depose a bad ruler and put another in his place. It was plain, therefore, that the authority of the king in England was limited by Parliament and the law of the land.

10. The deposition of James II., and the transfer of the crown to William of Orange is known as the *Revolution*, which is a word meaning the alteration of the way in which a country is governed, and the transfer of the power of the old rulers to new ones.

LESSON XXXII.

WILLIAM OF ORANGE.

1. The people who thought that Parliament ought to have the chief power in the state now came to be called Whigs, from the name originally given to some of the Scotch Protestants. On the other hand, those who supported the claims of the crown were known as Tories, from a name which had first been applied to some of the Irish Roman Catholics. The names were at first bestowed in contempt on each party by its enemies; but ever since, Whig and Tory have been the names by which the two chief parties in English political affairs have generally been distinguished.

2. The Revolution had been accomplished chiefly by means of the Whigs. The Tories, though they would not fight for a king who wished to overthrow the Church of England, were not very pleased to see the crown transferred to the Dutch prince, William of Orange. So James hoped that, with the help of the King of France, he would soon be able to return to the throne.

3. He resolved to make the first attempt in Ireland. The Irish, with the exception of some of the people of the north, who had lately emigrated from England and Scotland, were nearly all Roman Catholics, and had always been inclined to rebel against the Protestants and the Parliament. Consequently the Irish had been treated with great severity by the English rulers, especially by Oliver Cromwell, and large

portions of the land had been taken from them and given to English and Scotch settlers. So that when James landed in Ireland he easily got together an army. The Irish Parliament acknowledged him as king, and declared that the lands of Protestants must be given up to the Catholics. But the Protestants in the north held out for William until he arrived with his army. Then James was totally defeated at the Battle of the Boyne, and obliged to go back to France.

4. These events were the beginning of fresh misfortunes for Ireland. Parliament determined to diminish the power and the numbers of the Catholics to the utmost. Still more of their land was taken from them and given to Protestants; and for many years Protestants alone were allowed to have any share in the government of the country. The Catholic worship was prohibited, and the Church of England was established as the only legal religion. All these severe laws have long been abolished; but ever since the Revolution there has been great discontent in Ireland, which has often broken out into conspiracies and rebellions.

5. As soon as William III. was firmly established, he led England to join the league of the Protestant states of the continent, and to help them to resist Louis XIV. of France. The war lasted for about eight years, and many great battles by sea and land were fought. The English won a splendid naval victory over the French off Cape la Hogue, and almost destroyed the French fleet. On the other hand, the English and Dutch were not always so successful by land against the armies of King Louis. So

WILLIAM III. AT THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE (A.D 1690).

that in 1697 both parties were glad to make peace.

6. But the peace did not last very long. The King of Spain died in 1700, and Louis XIV. tried to get the Spanish throne for his own grandson. William III. was afraid that the French king would be so powerful as to be dangerous to England if the crowns of France and Spain were united in his family. With great difficulty he succeeded in making a fresh league between England and the Protestant countries of the continent against France. The English people would not perhaps have been willing to begin the war with France again, for this reason only; but Louis recognised the son of James II. as King of England, in succession to his father, who was dead, and intended to invade England to restore him. Then the English were ready to go to war, for they feared that if they did not check Louis he would force the Stuart king on them against their will, and would try to make the country Roman Catholic. But before the war actually broke out, William III. died, in 1702. His wife, Mary, had died some years before.

7. William was a wise and excellent king, but he was not able to govern quite easily and successfully in England. There were violent quarrels between the Whigs and Tories, each party trying to draw the king and the nation to its side, and to carry the measures it wished in Parliament. Though William had been brought in by the Whigs, he did not think it right to govern only by means of them, and tried to choose his ministers from both parties. But this only set both

against him. He was disliked and distrusted by the people, too, because he was a foreigner, and shy and reserved in his manners. Yet his reign had been very useful to England. He had saved the country from great dangers, and freed it from a race of tyrannical sovereigns. He desired to reign only by the will of the nation and for its good. Under him the Parliament received full control over public affairs, and the statesmen whom Parliament accepted as its leaders gradually came to be, as they are now, the actual rulers of the country.

LESSON XXXIII.

THE WHIGS AND THE TORIES.

1. William and Mary left no children, so Parliament decided that the crown should pass to Anne, the second daughter of James II., who, like her sister Mary, was a Protestant. Anne was more popular with the nation than William had been; but during her reign the disputes between the Whigs and Tories went on with even more violence than before.

2. In the first part of her reign the affairs of the country were managed by a great soldier and statesman named John Churchill, who was created Duke of Marlborough. He had been one of William III.'s chief councillors, and was anxious, like him, to carry on the war against the French with vigour. Parliament granted a large sum of money, and the Dutch and

the Germans, who were in alliance with England, put their armies under his command.

3. Marlborough was one of the most skilful and successful generals who ever led the armies of England. For some years the English and their allies under him gained a number of great victories over the French generals on the northern borders of France and in Germany. In 1704, at Blenheim, in Bavaria, he inflicted on the French the most severe defeat they had sustained from the English since the time of Henry V. Afterwards he won other great victories in the Netherlands, and would have invaded France itself, if he had not been stopped by the state of things in England.

4. The Whigs had been the chief support of Marlborough in the war. The Tories would have been glad to see it finished. So Marlborough, who did not belong to either of the parties, and was only anxious that the war should be persevered in, had persuaded the queen to choose Whigs as her ministers. But the Whigs were disliked by many people, because they wished to do away with the oppressive laws which were in force against those who did not belong to the Church of England. The Puritan times were not forgotten, and men feared that, if any of these laws were changed, such times might return. So that the Tories, who strongly supported the Church, became the more numerous party in Parliament.

5. The queen herself had grown tired of the Whig ministers. She was weary, too, of the Duke of Marlborough's wife, who had formerly been her greatest friend, but who had now offended her by behaving with

great rudeness. So that she was easily prevailed upon to send away her Whig counsellors, and to appoint a Ministry of Tories.

6. These ministers soon proceeded to make peace with France. Marlborough opposed this with all his might, but his voice was no longer listened to as it had been in the first days of his success, while the French had now been so badly beaten that they were glad to end the war. By this peace, which was agreed upon at Utrecht, in Holland, in 1713, king Louis' grandson was allowed to be King of Spain; but a large part of the Spanish territories were taken away and given to a German ally of the English.

7. Some years before this, an event occurred which was really more important to English people. Scotland had long been ruled by the same king as England, but it had always had a separate Parliament to make its laws. In 1707 it was agreed that there should only be one Parliament for both countries. Ever since that time a certain number of Scotch members have formed part of the English House of Commons. So that all the quarrels and disputes between England and Scotland came happily to an end, and the two countries have ever since formed one united nation, under the name of Great Britain.

8. Queen Anne did not live long after the peace of Utrecht. She left no children. Some of the Tories, who were known as *Jacobites*, wished that Anne's brother, James Edward, the son of James II., should be king. Most of the Tories, however, were deeply attached to the Church; and, besides, they hated foreigners and all

foreign connections. So, as James was a Roman Catholic, and had been brought up in France, they would have nothing to do with him. Besides, a law had been passed, called the "Act of Settlement," which excluded Roman Catholics from the throne of England, and in accordance with this the crown was transferred to a German prince, George of Hanover, who was the great grandson of James I., because he was the nearest heir who was a Protestant.

LESSON XXXIV.

THE RULE OF THE WHIGS.

1. George I. (1714-1727) did not come to the throne quite unopposed. James Edward came over from France, and collected an army in Scotland. But he did not display much courage or energy. His followers were badly defeated in two battles, and he himself fled back to the continent.

2. The Tories disliked the new German king from the first. He knew he could not trust them, and that the Whigs had secured him the throne. So George dismissed the Tory ministers whom Anne had chosen, and appointed Whigs in their places. Most of the great nobles in the House of Lords were Whigs. Many of the members of the House of Commons were elected by the people of small towns on the estates of these nobles, who paid them money in order that the electors might send to Parliament the persons they

wanted; and these persons were of course Whigs. The people generally did not care much for politics, but they did not trust the Tories, because they were afraid that they would try to bring back the Stuarts. So for many years after this time the Whigs outnumbered the Tories in the Houses of Parliament, and the country was ruled entirely by the Whigs.

3. George I., and his successor, George II. (1727-1760), remained Germans. They cared more for their German country of Hanover than for their kingdom of England. They could not even speak the English language; so that they were obliged to leave the management of affairs in the hands of their chief ministers much more than any kings before them. Since the time of George I. the leading minister has always been called the Prime Minister, and it is he, and not the king, who is responsible to the nation for the proper government of the country.

4. The Prime Minister during the greater part of these two reigns was Sir Robert Walpole. He took care to be very friendly with the kings, so that they were glad to have him as their minister. He was on good terms with the Whig lords, and he was sure of being supported in the House of Commons, because he paid many of the members large sums of money so that they might vote on his side. Members of Parliament were not very strict in those days, and most of them did not mind taking money from a minister, though it would be considered a very disgraceful thing to do so now. By such means Walpole remained in power for more than twenty years.

5. During all this time he did his best to keep the country at peace. He made some excellent laws for the regulation of trade, and under him the commerce of the country flourished greatly. But this increase of trade put an end to the peaceful feeling in England. For men imagined then that the more other nations traded the less profit would be left for themselves; so that the French and Spaniards would not allow the English to trade with the countries which belonged to them. The old disputes between England and Spain about the American trade broke out again.

6. The English sailors insisted on trading in America, and the Spaniards sometimes treated them with great cruelty in consequence. A sailor named Jenkins went about everywhere carrying his ear wrapped up in cotton-wool, and declaring that it had been cut off by the Spaniards because he had gone to trade with South America. The English, hearing such stories, grew eager to punish Spain and France, and to compel them to admit our sailors and our merchants. Walpole tried hard to prevent a war, for he knew how much blood would be shed in it, and how greatly the trade of the country would suffer. But at last he was obliged to give way, and the English, together with some of the German states, declared war against the French and the Spaniards. Not long afterwards, in the year 1742, Walpole resigned his office of Prime Minister.

7. The war, which lasted till 1748, was not very successful, though the English, led by King George II. himself, won a victory over the French at Dettingen. Then, in order to disturb England, the French stirred

FLIGHT OF THE YOUNG PRETENDER (A.D. 1746).

up the Jacobites to make a fresh insurrection. Charles Edward, the grandson of James II., landed in Scotland in 1745, and soon gathered an army about him, chiefly from the Highlanders, who were a wild people, and had never quite submitted to the English. The young Pretender (as Charles Edward was called) gained a battle over the king's army, and marched into England. But nobody there cared much about the Stuarts, and he gained no followers. He was obliged to go back to the north of Scotland. The Duke of Cumberland, the king's brother, followed him with an English army, and came up with him at Culloden, in Inverness-shire. The Highlanders fought with great bravery, but they were not trained soldiers, like the king's troops, and were completely defeated. Charles Edward fled from place to place, until at length, after many adventures, he managed to escape to France. After this there were no more attempts to restore the Stuarts.

8. After Walpole's retirement the country was ruled by other Whig ministers, who governed far less wisely than he had done. They did not care so much for the welfare of their country, and only thought about keeping their power in Parliament; so they gave the great nobles in the House of Lords what they wanted, and paid money to bribe the members of the House of Commons. But there was one member, named William Pitt, who would not be won over in this way. He was a poor man, but he was too honourable to take money from the ministers, as most of the members did. He raised his voice against the corruption which prevailed,

and tried to get the country governed in the interests of the nation generally. This caused him to be greatly liked and trusted by the people outside Parliament.

9. So popular did Pitt become that the king was at length obliged to make him one of the ministers. A fresh war broke out with France in 1756, and it was felt that Pitt was the only man who could manage it properly. The Duke of Newcastle, one of the great Whig lords, was called Prime Minister, but it was Pitt who was really at the head of affairs.

LESSON XXXV.

THE ENGLISH IN ASIA AND AMERICA.

1. The war which began in 1756 lasted till 1763, and is therefore often spoken of as the *Seven Years' War*. Under the management of Pitt the English gained many great successes, especially at sea. The French fleets were almost destroyed in these battles, and it began to be acknowledged that the English sailors were braver and more skilful than those of any other country. The fighting on land chiefly took place far away in America and in India, where the English and French were both striving for the mastery.

2. We saw that the first English settlements in America were made in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Under the Stuart kings, many people who were badly treated in England because of their religion settled in America,

in a district they called New England, which now forms the north-eastern part of the United States. During the Great Rebellion, some of the Royalists whose lands had been taken from them by the Puritans went to another part of the same country; and afterwards many other Englishmen settled all along the coast of the Atlantic, from New England almost to the Gulf of Mexico. The country was a rich and fertile one, so that by the time of George II. the English colonists had become flourishing and prosperous, and had increased greatly in numbers. They were a people of farmers and husbandmen, living in a land of plenty, and raising great crops of wheat, Indian corn and tobacco.

3. The French were resolved to have a share in the riches of this prosperous country. They made settlements in the districts north of the River St. Lawrence, which now form part of Canada, as well as at the mouth of the Mississippi, on the Gulf of Mexico. They built a number of forts in the neighbourhood of this river, and filled them with soldiers, hoping by this means to get possession in time of the whole land. There had been quarrels between them and the English settlers for some time before the Seven Years' War broke out. Then the French began to build forts even nearer the English settlements. The English thought that it would become impossible for them to stay in North America, unless the French were driven out of it; so fighting took place in earnest between the troops of the two nations.

4. Pitt found a young and very brave general named

Wolfe, whom he put at the head of the English army in Canada. Quebec, the strongest fortress which the French had there, was taken by Wolfe, who was himself killed at the very moment of the capture. After this the French met with more reverses, and at last lost Canada and all their other possessions in America. So that the result of this war was to decide that this great continent should belong to nations of Englishmen, and people who spoke English, rather than to Frenchmen. The people of New England, and the colonies to the south of them, as we shall soon see, separated from England before long; but Canada is still joined with England, and its people—even those who are descended from the French settlers—are proud to think themselves Englishmen, and subjects of the English queen.

5. While these events were happening in America, Englishmen and Frenchmen were also fighting in Asia. Since the year 1600, a number of English merchants, who were called the East India Company, had been trading with India. They did not aim at conquering the country. They only established a few settlements and forts, where their officers could live and collect goods. The French had their settlements too; and during the war which arose in Walpole's time they began to think how they might drive the English out, and get all the trade into their own hands. They formed a league with some of the native Indian princes, and attacked the settlements of the English, forcing them to fight in self-defence.

6. The English found a leader in a young man of

great boldness and determination, named Robert Clive, who had been a clerk in the employment of the East India Company. He was put at the head of a small force of English and native soldiers, hired by the Company, and with these inflicted a great defeat on the French and their allies. Then the English joined with one of the native princes, and enabled him to overthrow a rival whom the French had set up. After this Clive won other victories, so that the French lost all their influence in southern India. Then the English began to subdue native provinces, and the men who had at first been mere traders in the land became the rulers of great territories.

7. One of the English settlements was at Calcutta, in Bengal. A native prince, named Surajah Dowlah, who had quarrelled with the English, shut up 143 people, whom he found there, in a single small room, which was afterwards known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. In such a terribly hot climate as that of India the sufferings of the prisoners were dreadful. In the course of a day and a night, most of them had died of suffocation; only twenty-three of the whole number escaped alive. Clive was sent with an army from Madras to punish the cruel tyrant. He won back Calcutta, and defeated an army twenty times as numerous as his own. Surajah Dowlah was deposed. A prince was set on the throne who was thought to be favourable to the English, and they became the rulers of the country round Calcutta.

8. Ever since that time the English have been getting more land from the natives, until at length

the greater part of the two hundred millions of people in India have passed under our rule. The English have not always behaved well to the natives; but in these days Englishmen feel it is one of their chief duties to govern India with wisdom and justice. Under the English rule the native princes have been kept from fighting with one another, the barbarian tribes of the hill country have been held at bay, and the land has enjoyed peace, order, and prosperity.

LESSON XXXVI.

GEORGE III. A.D. 1760—1820.

1. By the time the Seven Years' War was over George II. was dead, and his grandson, George III., had become king. His reign lasted sixty years, and was full of great and important events.

2. George III. came to the throne with the idea of putting down the power of the Whig nobles, who had kept the chief authority in their own hands since the reign of Queen Anne. He would have liked to have made the king really the head of the state, with the ministers as his servants, as had been the case before the Revolution; and Parliament had thought so little of the welfare of the people in its management of affairs that the English would not have been sorry to see its power grow less.

3. Pitt went out of office soon after George came to the throne, and the king chose his new ministers

without regarding the wishes of his Parliament. But the ministers he set up managed so badly that he had to send them away again. Then, in 1766, Pitt, who was made Earl of Chatham, was put at the head of affairs once more; but he was no longer the man he had once been. His health was very bad, and he was often so ill that he could not attend to matters of state for months together. The Government fell into confusion, and in 1771 new ministers were appointed, the chief of whom was Lord North, a Tory.

4. In him the king found just the sort of minister he wanted. North was a sensible man, and often saw what was right for the country, and he knew how to get the House of Commons to act as he wished; but he was generally ready to do whatever the king told him, sometimes even when he thought it was quite wrong. He was lazy and indolent, and, like many other men of that time, was too fond of drinking wine and playing cards. While he was minister, the king really managed the Government himself.

5. The country was soon engaged in a great dispute with the American colonies. Many people in England thought that the Americans ought to pay taxes to support the English Government, but the Americans thought this would be unjust, because they had no members to represent them in Parliament as the people of England had; so that when taxes were placed on tea and other articles by the English Government, they were very indignant, and declared that they would not pay them. Lord Chatham, with some of the wisest men in England, advised that the taxes

should be taken off; but the king was determined that they should pay, and in this he was supported by Parliament. So George ordered his army to compel his English subjects in America to pay the taxes, and to punish those who had resisted. And then the English in America rebelled against him.

6. The various colonies (with the exception of those in Canada and the adjacent countries) formed themselves into a league, and representatives chosen by them met and formed a Parliament of their own, called the Congress. George Washington, a very brave and prudent man, and one who had no thought but to serve his country, took the lead, and was made the general of their armies. In England it was thought that the war would soon be over. Officers and soldiers who had been trained in the Seven Years' War were sent to America, while the colonists had no regular soldiers to resist them.

7. But the colonists were fighting for the same rights that their fellow-subjects in England had fought for a hundred years before, and would not give in. At first they were often beaten, and they suffered greatly from the want of regular supplies of provisions for the men and forage for the horses. But Washington struggled patiently through all his difficulties, and his men, like Cromwell's, became more skilful soldiers as time went on; so that the king's armies were beaten in their turn. One of the king's generals was surrounded with his whole army, and had to surrender to the Americans.

8. By this time the colonists had determined to be independent of England, and had published their

CHATHAM IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS (A.D. 1778.)

Declaration of Independence. Then, as the colonists seemed likely to become successful, the French joined them, and declared war against England. Many people in England were disposed to give up the war, and to allow the Americans to be independent. The great Lord Chatham, who was now very old, had all along spoken against the war, but he did not think that the English ought to seem to yield to France. He came from his sick bed to the House of Lords, and made a speech urging the nation not to give way. When he had finished speaking, he fell down senseless, and was carried away by his friends. Three weeks afterwards he died.

9. But soon another English army surrendered to the Americans, and men saw that the war was hopeless. Peace was made, and England acknowledged that the United States, as the colonies were now called, formed an independent country (A.D. 1783).

10. This was a hundred years ago. Since then many other districts in America have been added to the United States; so that now they form a greater country than any kingdom within Europe. For some time after the Americans separated from the English they were on bad terms with the old country; for they remembered the injustice with which they had been treated, and the suffering they had endured in the war. Gradually, however, the two nations have become good friends, and we may hope they will always remain so. Every year many thousands of people from the British Islands settle in America, and find their home in that great nation of Englishmen across the Atlantic.

LESSON XXXVII.

WILLIAM PITT'S MINISTRY.

1. Lord North's bad management of the American War made him so unpopular that the king was obliged to dismiss him, and to consent that the country should be governed by the Whigs once more. But the Whigs did not agree well together; so George III. got rid of them again, and in 1783 chose as his chief minister William Pitt, the son of the great Earl of Chatham, a young man only twenty-three years old.

2. But most of the members in the House of Commons were still Whigs, and they resisted Pitt to the uttermost. But the king stood by him, and people out of doors were greatly in his favour, because they thought his opponents had only selfish aims, and wanted to get places in the Government for themselves. So the king summoned a new Parliament, and most people chose members who would support Pitt.

3. Pitt belonged to the Tory party, like Lord North, but he was very different indeed from Lord North. He was glad to do what the king wished, as far as he could, but his greatest aim was to rule so as to make the people better, and more contented and prosperous.

4. The trade of England was increasing fast at this time, and Englishmen were thinking more of trading and manufacturing than ever. People had begun to learn that a country grows richer the more freely it is able to trade with its neighbours. Before this time Governments had done as much as they could to pre-

vent, rather than to encourage, commerce with foreign countries; but Pitt made a treaty with France by which it was agreed that the people of the two states should be able to trade as they pleased with each other. He hoped that this would add to the riches of both, and would in course of time make them more friendly as well.

5. He tried to do something, too, to put an end to the trade in slaves, which was a disgrace to the English merchants and sailors who engaged in it. Some excellent men had shown the nation and Parliament how terrible this slave-trade really was. The slaves were negroes who were captured in Africa, and carried across the sea to be sold in America and the West Indies, in order that they might work in the cotton plantations there. The ships used for this trade were small and narrow, and in their dark holds hundreds of slaves were packed together so closely that they could not stir. In order that they might not die for want of exercise, they were brought up on deck from time to time, and whipped, to make them jump about; and if they fell ill, or the ship was too heavily laden, they were thrown overboard into the sea to drown.

6. Many people in England were shocked when they heard of these horrible things. Pitt and Wilberforce did their utmost to do away with the slave trade; but it was not till some years afterwards, when Pitt was dead, that it was altogether abolished.

7. This time was remarkable for many new inventions in machinery, which brought about great changes

in England. Large quantities of wool and cotton were woven into cloth and thread in England, but it had been all done by hand. The weavers worked in their own homes generally, each man working at his own little weaving-loom. But in George III.'s reign the spinning-jenny and other machinery was invented, by which materials could be woven much faster than by hand. This made cottons and cloth cheaper, and so far more even used. Whole towns became engaged in the manufacture, and factories arose in which thousands of people were employed; so that now the people of many countries of the world are almost entirely clothed by the work-people of our English mills.

8. It was at this time, too, that steam-engines came into use for working machinery. A Scotch engineer, named James Watt, was the first to show how this was possible, though many people had thought about the matter before. With the help of steam-engines almost all manufactures could be made better and quicker, and could be sold more cheaply. Poor people were now able to get many things which none but the very rich could buy in former times.

9. Newspapers, too, became more common at this time, and through them people got to know more about political affairs, and to take more interest in the doings of Parliament. Many of the greatest towns which had sprung up in modern times had not the right to send members of their own to Parliament, while many very small ones still kept the right which had been formerly given them. Besides, only a few of the people in these boroughs had the right to vote in the election, and in

the counties only land-owners. This seemed very unjust, and Pitt tried to get a law made to *reform* Parliament, so that the members should be chosen by the greater number of the people in the country instead of by a few only. But the House of Commons would not consent to this then, and the *Reform of Parliament* was not accomplished till many years afterwards.

LESSON XXXVIII.

THE IRISH REBELLION.

1. Pitt soon had other things than these to think about. In 1789 and the following years there were great troubles in France. The French kings had long ruled the country badly, and the common people had been so oppressed and ill-treated that they were very miserable, and often nearly starving. At length they rebelled, and there was a great Revolution in France, which was far more sweeping and terrible than the English Revolutions of Cromwell's time and William's. The French king was put to death with many others; most of the nobles were driven out of the country. France became a *Republic*—that is, a country not under a king, but under the rule of governors elected by the people.

2. At first most people in England did not think that these events need concern them. But the French had been so little accustomed to liberty that they did not know how to use it when they had got it.

Terrible scenes of bloodshed took place in their chief towns, and many thousands of persons who were supposed to favour the king were put to death with great cruelty. Then the leaders of the French people talked about making all other countries dethrone their kings and become republics too; so other nations became alarmed, and a league was formed by them against France. Some of the leaders of the Whigs did not want England to have anything to do with this; but Pitt, and the greater number of members of Parliament, thought differently, and England joined the league. Soon there began a great war between France and the other countries of Europe, which lasted more than twenty years.

3. In order to do harm to England, the French republicans encouraged the people of Ireland to rebel. The Irish did not require much persuasion, for they were very badly off and discontented. After the fall of James II. the lands of many of the Roman Catholics were taken away and given to Protestants; but these Protestant landlords cared very little about the peasants on their estates. Often they lived away from Ireland altogether, and spent the money which their tenants paid them in England or in foreign countries; and the rents which the peasants had to pay for their farms were so high that they could hardly manage to live and support their families. The people had not learnt to cultivate the ground well, so that very little corn or anything else but potatoes was grown. All through the west and south of Ireland most of the people thought themselves lucky if they could get potatoes

enough to keep themselves from starving. They never ate meat, except bacon, and bread very seldom.

4. The laws which were made when there was great danger that the Roman Catholics would bring back the Stuarts were still in force, and these increased the discontent of the Irish. The Catholics, who formed by far the greater part of the people, were not allowed to have any share in the government. They could not be members of Parliament, nor have any voice in the election of members. So that the Irish Parliament was made up of Protestants, who cared little for the wishes of the Catholic population. Only in the north of Ireland, where the people were Protestants and where the ground was well cultivated, was there any prosperity and content.

5. Pitt felt that these old laws had become unnecessary and unjust, and got the Irish Parliament to admit the Roman Catholics to some share in the government of the country. But they did not get as much as they wanted, and were still dissatisfied. Then the Catholics, encouraged by the French, rebelled against England, and the Protestants of the north united to put them down. There was civil war between Protestants and Catholics, and terrible deeds were done on both sides. The French sent an army to help the rebels, but it was scattered by a storm, and the rebellion was extinguished with cruel severity (A.D. 1798).

6. But after this it was thought that the separate Irish Parliament could not be allowed to govern Ireland any longer. In the year 1800 it was united with the English Parliament, as the Scotch Parliament had been in Queen Anne's time; so that now there

is only one House of Lords and one House of Commons for Great Britain and Ireland, which contain members from all the three countries.

7. When this *Union* had been completed, Pitt wished to pass laws giving the Catholics just the same rights in all things as the Protestants. But George III. would not consent to this, and Pitt, finding that the king would not allow him to do what he thought was right, resigned his office. But the great war with France was still going on, and as the English thought that Pitt was the man who understood best how to manage it, he soon came back again.

LESSON XXXIX.

THE EUROPEAN WAR.

1. The English, and the other nations who were fighting against France, were at first not very successful in the war on land. The French were commanded by some very able generals, so that they won several victories over their enemies, and drove back the German armies who had invaded their country. They conquered Belgium and other districts on their borders, so that France became greater and more dangerous than ever.

2. The greatest of all the French generals was Napoleon Bonaparte. He had entered the French army, when a very young man, as a lieutenant of artillery; but he was so clever and resolute that he soon rose to be the commander of an army, and in a few

years became the chief ruler of France, and could do what he liked with the country and the people. But as his power was upheld by his army, he was always planning the conquest of fresh lands; fearing that if he did not keep France at war, the French would no longer maintain his soldiers. He was so successful, and won so many battles, that most of the countries which had begun the war gradually left the alliance, and made peace with France.

3. The English went on fighting, but as their army was small, they fought chiefly at sea. Their sailors were brave and skilful, and they had one admiral—Horatio Nelson—who was as great a commander by sea as Napoleon was by land, and was, beside, a much better man; for while Napoleon was always thinking of himself and his own glory, Nelson thought only how he might best do his duty to England.

4. In the year 1798 Napoleon had taken an army to Egypt, in order that he might conquer western Asia, and afterwards attack the English in India. But Nelson attacked the French fleet as it lay near the mouth of the Nile, and completely destroyed it. Then the French army was quite cut off from home, and did not succeed in making any of the grand conquests which had been intended. Napoleon himself with difficulty escaped from Egypt in an open boat, and managed to get back to France.

5. Soon afterwards he tried to get the countries of northern Europe to join him against the English. Among these was Denmark, which had a powerful fleet, though it was a small country. But Nelson

attacked the Danish fleet and their capital, Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to stay at peace.

6. In consequence of these events, the French were ready to agree to a peace with England for a time; but it was evident that Napoleon was still trying to make conquests in other countries, so that war was soon begun again. Austria and Russia joined England, and it seemed to most people that there could not be a peace which would last while Napoleon continued to be the leader of the French.

7. He himself looked upon the English as his principal enemies, and got ready a great army on the shores of the English Channel, with which he intended to invade England. This was a worse danger than that which threatened the English in the days of the Spanish Armada, and they showed the same spirit and courage in meeting it. The army was strengthened, and thousands of men enlisted in the Volunteers to be drilled, and taught how to use arms, so that they might be able to fight the French if they landed.

8. But England was saved by its ships and sailors. Napoleon had got together a great fleet, which was intended to draw away Nelson from the Channel while the French army landed; but before this could be done, Nelson had met and utterly destroyed the French fleet, and the Spanish fleet, which was united with it, off Cape Trafalgar, in the south of Spain. It was the greatest of all the victories which the English ever won at sea; and it saved England from all dread of invasion, for no French fleet ventured to put to sea during the rest of the war.

THE BATTLE OF TOULOUSE (A.D. 1814).

9. But the victory cost the English the life of their great leader. Before the battle Nelson had hung out from the mast of his ship a flag with this signal—"England expects every man to do his duty." They are noble words, which all Englishmen ought to remember. Nelson had done his duty, and died in doing it. He was shot down by a French rifleman as he stood on the quarter-deck of his ship, giving orders about the battle. In England the sorrow of all men at his death was greater even than the joy felt at the splendid victory he had won.

10. Napoleon gave up the idea of invading England, and led his troops against other countries. One after another the nations of the continent fell before him, till at last he had brought a large part of Europe under his power. In 1808 he sent his armies to conquer Portugal and Spain. The King of Spain was deposed, and Napoleon's brother put on the throne; but the Spaniards fought bravely against the invaders, and the English Government determined to help them.

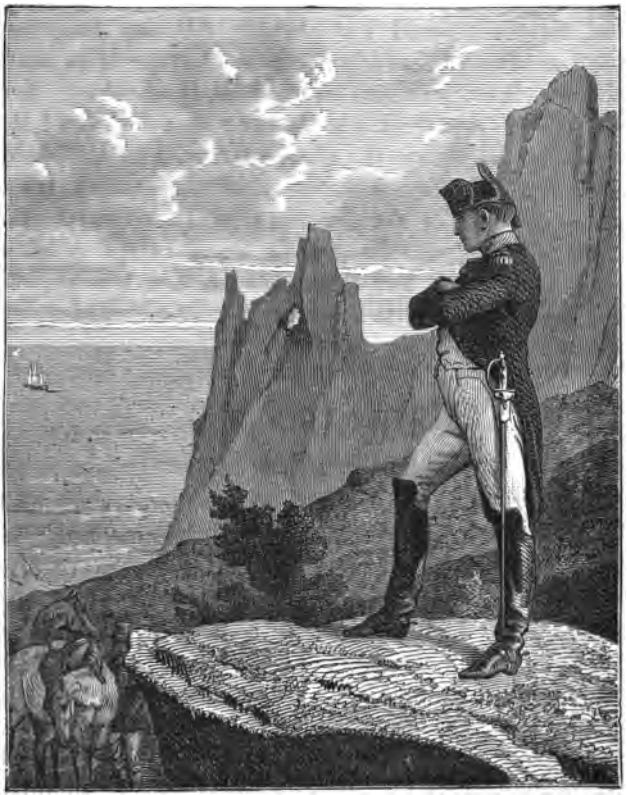
11. An English army was sent out to the Peninsula, as Spain and Portugal were usually called. It was commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, who was afterwards made Duke of Wellington. He was an officer who had won much fame in India, and in this *Peninsular War* he soon showed himself to be the best general who had led English troops since the time of Marlborough. At first he had great difficulties to struggle with. His army was very small, compared to that of the French, and his men were mostly raw recruits, while Napoleon's were tried veterans. The

Spaniards did not know how to help themselves, and they were too proud to let the English help them. Their soldiers were brave, but their generals were ignorant and foolish. Though Wellington had come to save their country, they threw all kinds of difficulties in his way.

12. But Wellington worked on patiently, and in time overcame all obstacles. Often he had to retreat before the great French armies, but they could not drive him out of the country altogether; for he had built a line of fortifications near Lisbon with strong ramparts and earthworks, which always served as a shelter for his army. Whenever he met the French generals on the field of battle he defeated them, and gradually drove them right into the north of Spain, and then across the border into France itself. The last battle of the Peninsular War was fought near the French town of Toulouse, in 1814, six years after Wellington first landed.

13. Napoleon was defeated in other places as well. He had sent a great army into Russia to conquer the country; but the Russians burnt their towns, that the French might find no shelter in the terrible winter, and almost all perished on the great snowy plains. Then the Germans joined together, and the other nations which Napoleon had overrun turned against him and invaded France, reaching Paris about the time that Wellington was fighting his last battles in the Spanish war. Napoleon was obliged to yield to England and her allies. He was dethroned, and shut up in Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean. People hoped that at length there would be a lasting peace in Europe.

14. But next year Napoleon escaped back to France, and got an army round him again. An English army



NAPOLEON AT ST. HELENA.

under Wellington, together with a Prussian army, gathered in Belgium to overthrow him. At Waterloo,

near Brussels, on the 18th of June, 1815, the last battle of the war took place. Napoleon fell upon the English with an army more numerous than their own before the Prussians could join them. All day long our soldiers fought bravely, and would not give way, though their numbers were rapidly growing less. But they drove back all the French attacks till the Prussians came up in the afternoon, and then the French were utterly defeated. Napoleon was captured soon after, and sent to live for the rest of his days in the little island of St. Helena, far away in the Atlantic Ocean. Then at last there was peace in Europe, and the great war came to an end.

LESSON XL.

THE REFORM OF PARLIAMENT.

1. When the war was over, there was much distress in England. Trade had become bad, and corn and other provisions had become dearer. The war had cost enormous sums. The taxes were very heavy, and had loaded the country with a huge *National Debt* which we have never yet paid off. The people were multiplying faster than food could be produced within England for them to eat, yet Parliament put heavy taxes on food brought from abroad. Wages were very low, so that working-men could not bring up their families out of their own earnings, but had to look to charity to help them. Their little children had to go to work in the factories for bread,

so that they grew up sickly and ignorant. The poor grew poorer, and even the well-to-do were terribly burdened by the rates they had to pay to keep them from starving. All this led to much discontent, and made people wish for a change in the form of government. They thought that Parliament was too much under the control of the nobility and the land-owners, and that therefore it did not take notice of the sufferings and the needs of the working people. They asked, therefore, that the *franchise*, or right of electing Members of Parliament, should be given to the working-classes, and that the great towns, where the trade and manufactures of the country were carried on, should send members of their own to Parliament. But it took some years before this *Reform of Parliament* was made, and in the meanwhile the working-people, in their misery and impatience, often broke out into riots. Soldiers had to be used to put them down, and many men were killed and wounded.

2. In 1820, George III., who was very old, and had long been out of his mind, died, and his son, George IV. (1820—1830), succeeded him. In his reign the Duke of Wellington became Prime Minister, and he persuaded Parliament to pass a law which gave the Roman Catholics equal rights with the Protestants. Wellington was a Tory, and opposed to the claims of the Roman Catholics, but he thought that if they were not granted there would be another rebellion in Ireland.

3. Wellington, however, would not undertake the reform of Parliament for all the discontent of the people. But the Whigs, who had been almost ex-

cluded from the Government since the time of Pitt, took it up. In 1830 George IV. died, and his brother, William IV. (1830—1837) became king. Lord Grey, the leader of the Whigs, was made Prime Minister, and he came into office determined to reform the House of Commons. He was very strongly supported by the people, especially by those of the manufacturing districts. In 1831, Lord Grey brought forward the *Reform Bill*. He proposed that the *franchise* should be given to far greater numbers of the people than hitherto, that more members should be sent to Parliament by the big towns and the larger counties, and that the old boroughs which were too small to deserve a member of their own should be content to have a voice in electing the members for their county.

4. It was with great difficulty that the ministers could get Parliament to accept the Bill. Even after the House of Commons had passed it, the House of Lords threw it out; and this happened again in the following year, 1832. There was great anger in the country, and the men of the north threatened to march on London, and compel the Lords to pass the Bill. At any rate, it seemed quite likely that a rebellion would take place in England if they resisted the wishes of the people any longer. So at length the Lords gave way, and the Bill became law.

5. In 1867, under Benjamin Disraeli, another Reform Bill was passed. This allowed still more people to vote in the election of members of Parliament, so that in our towns nearly every man who has a fixed dwelling-place of any sort has the right to vote. And

so it is now the whole body of the people of the country who decide on the way in which England shall be governed, and who choose the men to govern it. The reformed Parliament has gradually remedied the chief evils which once troubled the people; and now any men who think that a thing is wrong, or that another thing ought to be done, have only to persuade the nation that they are right and their wishes will be carried out. So that the English are a perfectly free and self-governed people.

LESSON XLI.

THE REIGN OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

1. King William IV. died in 1837, and was succeeded by his niece, Queen Victoria. Her reign has been a long one, and events have taken place in it quite as important as any in the past.

2. One of these was the *Repeal of the Corn Laws*, in 1846. By these laws a heavy tax had been imposed on all corn that was brought into England from foreign countries, in order that more corn might be grown by English farmers and land-owners. But if those who grew corn gained by this tax, all other people lost by it, for they had to pay more for each loaf of bread they bought.

3. England has grown far richer since the Repeal of the Corn Laws. Bread is cheaper, people have more money to spend on other things, and the trade of Eng-

CAPTURE OF CAWNPORE IN THE INDIAN MUTINY (A.D. 1857).

land with all other countries has grown much greater than ever it was before.

4. Many people hoped that the growth of trade would at length put an end to war. Prince Albert, the husband of the Queen, a very wise and good man, worked hard to get the nations of the world to bring their productions to the Great Exhibition of 1851. A beautiful glass building was constructed in Hyde Park, London, and almost every nation in the world sent its wares to show, and the people of the various countries got to know and like each other better.

5. But the Exhibition did not put an end to wars, and England has had a good deal of fighting to do since that time. In 1854 a war broke out with Russia. The Russians were fighting with Turkey, in order, as they said, to protect the Christian people who lived in Turkey from ill-treatment. But in England and France it was thought that the Russians really wanted to overthrow the Sultan of Turkey and to get possession of some of his dominions, including the great town of Constantinople. To prevent this, an English and French army was sent to a country called the Crimea, in the south of Russia, and several battles were won by them. It was in one of these—the battle of Balaclava—that a famous deed, known as the "Charge of the Light Brigade," was done. Six hundred men, who formed the brigade of light cavalry in the English force, charged down into the midst of the whole Russian army, and fought their way back again through the hosts of the enemy, and past a battery of artillery, with

three-fourths of their number killed and wounded. At length the strong town of Sebastopol was taken, and the Crimean War came to an end. The Russians made peace, and agreed to leave the Turks alone.

6. Soon after the Crimean War was over, our Indian possessions came into great danger. A *Mutiny* broke out among the native soldiers whom the English kept in their service. The religion of the native Indians taught them to believe that the cow is a sacred animal which must be treated with great reverence. They fancied that the cartridges which the English ordered them to use for their rifles were greased with cow's fat, and were greatly irritated. They were encouraged by the native princes, who did not like the strict rule of the English Government. Many regiments revolted, and attacked the English people who lived in India; and these were so few in number that they were often overpowered and killed, though they defended themselves bravely. Soon soldiers were sent out from England, under Sir Colin Campbell, and the mutiny was put down; but it had shown how carefully England has to govern her countries in Asia.

7. Many things have been done in this reign to make the condition of the people in the country better. Laws have been made to prevent women and young children being employed in mines, or made to work beyond their strength in factories. More thought has been taken for the poor, and many hospitals and asylums have been built to shelter those who are unable to support themselves. Formerly, very little care had been taken about education, and few of

the working people knew how to read and write, or thought anything at all about books. Now, as we know, all children have to go to school, and to learn such things as will be useful to them all through life.

8. During the latter part of the reign of Queen Victoria, English statesmen have been obliged to turn their chief attention to Ireland. The Irish continued to be discontented with England long after the Union took place, and there is still a party in the country which wants to separate from England altogether. And since the year 1846, when a terrible disease destroyed the potato crop in Ireland, great numbers of the peasants have left their country and gone to America.

9. Constant attempts have been made of late years to remedy the discontent of the Irish. Since 1868 the Protestant Church of England, which was set up in Ireland at the Revolution, is no longer established by law, but is supported solely by its own members; and attempts have also been made to improve the position of the small farmers, and to protect them from the unjust treatment they used to receive from some amongst the landlords. No doubt it will take a long period of good government before Ireland will altogether lose the remembrance of the bad treatment of former days, and before the difficulties of England in that country will be over. For nations, like men and women, when they treat other people unjustly, have nearly always to suffer for it themselves in the end.

10. Thus has Britain been changed into modern England, and the great English nation formed out of

the German and British barbarians of the past, by the manliness, the wisdom, and the piety of our forefathers. At every moment of our lives, in the food we eat, in the clothes we wear, in the towns and the villages we inhabit, in the books we read, in the laws we live under, in the very thoughts and principles which guide us onwards, each one of us reaps the fruit of their labours. Them we cannot repay, but we reverence them, and in return we must labour for the good of those who will come after us. Every new discovery, every improvement in the laws, every change for the better in our own habits and our principles, works towards this end.

11. In the past our country has grown stronger and better the more its rulers and its people have striven to act rightly. It is the duty of Englishmen and Englishwomen to do their best to make England great in the future also. The first thing necessary is that they should live worthy and honourable lives themselves; for a country can only be great when its people are temperate, truthful, orderly, reverent, industrious, merciful, and courageous. It may happen, as it has happened to Englishmen before, that we shall be called on to make great sacrifices, and overcome great difficulties, in doing our duty to our country and our fellow-men; but we have to bear them patiently and courageously, remembering that it is through the toils and the sacrifices of our forefathers in days gone by that England has become the noble and prosperous country in which it is our happiness to live.

THE KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.

WITH THE DATES OF THEIR REIGNS.

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Ethelbert		860—866
Ethelred		866—871
Alfred		871—901
Edward the Elder		901—925
Athelstan		925—940
Edmund		940—947
Edred		947—955
Edwy		955—957
Edgar		957—975
Edward the Martyr		975
Ethelred the Unready		975—1016
Edmund Ironside		1016
Danish Kings	Canute	1017—1035
	Harold Harefoot	1035—1040
	Hardicanute	1040—1042
Edward the Confessor		1042—1065
Harold		1066

NORMAN KINGS.

William the Conqueror	1066—1087
William Rufus	1087—1100
Henry I.	1100—1135
Stephen	1135—1154

THE PLANTAGENETS.

Henry II.	1154—1189
Richard I.	1189—1199
John	1199—1216
Henry III.	1216—1272
Edward I.	1272—1307
Edward II.	1307—1327
Edward III.	1327—1377
Richard II.	1377—1399

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV.	1399—1413
Henry V.	1413—1422
Henry VI.	1422—1461

YORKIST KINGS.

Edward IV.	1461—1483
Edward V..	1483
Richard III.	1483—1485

THE TUDOR FAMILY.

Henry VII.	1485—1509
Henry VIII.	1509—1547
Edward VI.	1547—1553
Mary	1553—1558
Elizabeth	1558—1603

THE STUARTS.

James I.	1603—1625
Charles I.	1625—1649
The Commonwealth	1649—1660
Charles II.	1660—1685
James II.	1685—1688
William III. and Mary	1689—1702
Anne	1702—1714

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George I.	1714—1727
George II.	1727—1760
George III.	1760—1820
George IV.	1820—1830
William IV.	1830—1837
Victoria	1837

THE CHIEF EVENTS IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

	B.C.
First Landing of the Romans	55
	A.D.
The Romans leave Britain	409
The Landing of the English	449
St. Augustine Converts Kent to Christianity	597
Landing of the Danes	787
Egbert becomes King of the West Saxons	800
Alfred's Peace with the Danes	878
Danish Conquest of all England	1013
Battle of Hastings	1066
Domesday Book Completed	1086
Constitutions of Clarendon	1164
English Conquest of Ireland begins	1169
Murder of Thomas a Becket	1170
Richard I. goes to the Crusade	1190
England under an Interdict	1208
The Great Charter	1215
Revolt of the Barons; the Battle of Lewes	1264
The Commons Summoned to Parliament by Simon de Montfort	1265
Battle of Evesham; Death of Simon de Montfort	1265
Conquest of Wales	1282
The First Complete Parliament	1295
Conquest of Scotland	1296
Battle of Bannockburn	1314
Deposition of Edward II.	1327
Edward III. claims the French Crown	1339
Battle of Crecy	1346
Capture of Calais	1347
The Black Death	1349
Battle of Poitiers	1356

Revolt of the Peasants	1381
Richard II. Deposed	1399
Rebellion of the Percies	1403
Battle of Agincourt	1415
Joan of Arc Burnt	1431
Beginning of the Wars of the Roses	1455
Battle of Towton	1461
Battle of Barnet	1471
Caxton Establishes a Printing-press in England	1476
Battle of Bosworth	1485
Discovery of America	1492
Battle of Flodden	1513
Henry VIII. acknowledged Head of the Church	1531
Suppression of the Monasteries	1536
Battle of Pinkie	1547
English Prayer-Book Compiled	1548
Persecution of the Protestants	1555
Royal Supremacy Restored	1559
Sir Francis Drake's Voyage Round the World	1577
Execution of Mary Queen of Scots	1587
The Spanish Armada	1588
The Gunpowder Plot	1605
The Petition of Right	1628
Trial of John Hampden	1637
The Long Parliament Meets	1640
Execution of Strafford	1641
Beginning of the Great Rebellion	1642
Battle of Naseby	1645
Execution of Charles I.	1649
Battle of Worcester	1651
Cromwell declared Protector	1654
The Restoration	1660
The Great Plague	1665
The Great Fire of London	1666
The Habeas Corpus Act	1679
Monmouth's Insurrection	1685
The Revolution	1688

Battle of the Boyne	1690
Bank of England Established	1694
Battle of Blenheim	1704
Union with Scotland	1707
Treaty of Utrecht	1713
War with Spain and France	1740
Revolt under the Young Pretender	1745
Battle of Culloden	1746
The Seven Years' War begins	1756
Clive's Victory at Plassy	1757
Wolfe's Victory at Quebec	1759
Beginning of the American War of Independence	1773
Independence of the United States acknowledged	1783
The Great War with France begins	1793
Battle of the Nile	1798
The Irish Rebellion	1798
Battle of Copenhagen	1801
Battle of Trafalgar	1805
Abolition of the Slave Trade	1807
Beginning of the War in the Peninsula	1808
The French Driven Out of Spain	1813
Battle of Waterloo	1815
Catholic Emancipation Bill	1829
The Great Reform Bill	1832
Repeal of the Corn Laws	1846
The Irish Famine	1846
The War with Russia	1854
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